ORIGINAL PAPER



Mediterranean grassland succession as an indicator of changes in ecosystem biodiversity and functionality

José Antonio Molina¹ · Juan Pedro Martín-Sanz² · Inmaculada Valverde-Asenjo² · Abel Sánchez-Jiménez¹ · José Ramón Quintana²

Received: 18 March 2022 / Revised: 6 September 2022 / Accepted: 11 September 2022 / Published online: 11 November 2022 © The Author(s) 2022

Abstract

The abandonment of agricultural lands triggers a secondary succession of plant species which implies important changes in soil quality. Annual Mediterranean grasslands are known to be persistent on abandoned agriculture lands in the western Mediterranean. We used plant taxonomic and functional approaches to determine the role of Mediterranean grasslands as an indicator of changes in ecosystem biodiversity and functionality. We tested the hypothesis that Mediterranean grasslands are a suitable model for monitoring biodiversity and soil fertility in a secondary succession. Soil and vegetation features on 21 permanent plots were monitored in 2016 and 2020. Numerical classifications based on floristic composition showed two different plant communities independently of the sampling year: early-stage grasslands in the first post-abandonment decade and late-stage grasslands after the first post-abandonment decade. Generalized linear model and redundancy analysis also revealed differences in growth forms, functional traits and soil functionality between communities. Late-stage grasslands was characterized by enriched bryophyte coverage and an impoverishment in hemicryptophytes and plant latex segregators growing on soils with a higher hydrolase enzyme activity and TOC content compared to early-stage grassland. Our results suggest that annual Mediterranean grasslands growing on siliceous soils denoting a mature-stage succession, and floristically characterized by the symbiont plant with Ascomycota, Tuberaria guttata, and a high bryophyte cover, are worthy of recognition for conservation.

Keywords Abandoned agrosystems \cdot Annual dry grasslands \cdot Secondary succession \cdot Short-term \cdot Soil biology

Communicated by Daniel Sanchez Mata.

José Antonio Molina jmabril@ucm.es

¹ Department of Biodiversity, Ecology and Evolution, Complutense University of Madrid, c/ José Antonio Novais 12, 28040 Madrid, Spain

² Department of Chemistry in Pharmaceutical Sciences, Complutense University of Madrid, plaza Ramón y Cajal s/n, 28040 Madrid, Spain

Introduction

Terrestrial ecosystems are subject to different human-induced drivers that alter the ecosystem services on which we depend, including the maintenance of biodiversity (Steffen et al. 2004). Climate change, N deposition, CO₂ concentration, biotic change and land-use change take place simultaneously and interact with each other (Doblas-Miranda et al. 2015). Mediterranean terrestrial ecosystems are in transition between arid and temperate ecosystems and show a high sensitivity to the effects of these drivers of ecosystem diversity (Sala et al. 2000). Rural land abandonment is an important syndrome of global change in European Mediterranean countries, and the Mediterranean Basin is one of the world's regions where land abandonment is most prevalent (MacDonald et al. 2000; Weissteiner et al. 2011). In the last 20 years, 2.95 million hectares of utilized agricultural area have been lost in Spain (MAPA 2020). Between 2015 and 2030 about 11% (more than 20 million hectares) of agricultural land in the EU will be at high potential risk of abandonment, with Spain among the most affected countries (Perpiña Castillo et al. 2018). Land abandonment in the Mediterranean has enhanced species richness and overall abundance (Plieninger et al. 2014) and led to an improvement in ecosystem functionality through increased soil C and N, soil biological activity and plant diversity (Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020). However, there is a lack of in-depth knowledge on the relationships between the changes in plant composition and diversity and the changes in soil functionality during this secondary succession.

Mediterranean grasslands are among the most diverse in the world (Faber-Langendoen and Josse 2010), and occupy about 1.3 million km² of the Earth's surface (Dixon et al. 2014). In the European Mediterranean basin, grasslands include a high diversity of vegetation types (Mucina et al. 2016); specifically, annual Mediterranean grasslands on acidic soils contain a high diversity of low-growing ephemeral herb and grass plants. This habitat reaches its highest abundance and diversity in the western Mediterranean area, and is considered to be vulnerable due to its severe qualitative decline over the last 50 years (Janssen et al. 2016). In the western Mediterranean, annual grasslands are an important component of plant succession even long after the land has been abandoned (Debussche et al. 1996; Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020). Since dry grasslands are very suitable as a model system for biodiversity (Vrahnakis et al. 2013; Dengler et al. 2014), they can be used for long-term monitoring of changes in ecosystem biodiversity and functioning as occurs in the case of land abandonment. Despite their potential interest, there is a dearth of studies on secondary succession after abandonment in acidic soils and / in dry Mediterranean environments.

The main drivers of the secondary succession process in dry biomes are time since abandonment and soil properties (Carpenter et al. 1986; McAuliffe 1988; Agami et al. 1998; Dana and Mota 2006), and the principles of succession can be used to predict changes in biodiversity and ecosystem services over time (Prach and Walker 2011). Based on previous observations of secondary succession in abandoned vineyards in central Spain (Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020), we hypothesize that there is a change in plant communities over time during the secondary succession after the abandonment of agricultural activity, from firstcolonizing to late-successional species, in tandem with changes in soil microbiota activities and physicochemical properties. To test this hypothesis we studied the variability in the composition and biodiversity of annual grasslands and their relationships with the soil organic fraction and biological activity in a succession of abandoned vineyards, and their changes in the short term. This was done by examining the time of abandonment through



Fig. 1 A. Location of the study area. B. Examples of the study sites: (a) overall view of study area; (b) plot abandoned for five years in 2020; (c) plot abandoned for seven years in 2020; (d) plot abandoned for 11 years in 2020; (e) plot abandoned for 15 years in 2020; (f) plot abandoned for 29 years in 2020; (g) plot abandoned for 44 years in 2020; (h) control plot

a static chronosequence built with different times since abandonment (Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020), and through a dynamic chronosequence by resampling permanent plots over a short-term period of five years (2016, 2020). Our results provide arguments to preserve and restore ecosystem function and biodiversity in abandoned agrosystems.

Methods

Study area

The study area is in a rural ecosystem in central Spain at about 700 m above sea level (Navas del Rey in the Madrid Region, central Iberian Peninsula, Fig. 1 A). The climate is typically Mediterranean, with mild winters and hot dry summers. Igneous rocks, mainly granites, are dominant in the area, and the predominant soils are Leptosols and Regosols according to the FAO classification (WRBI 2015), characterised by their coarse texture and good drainage (Consorcio Sierra Oeste 2009). The area lies within the Meso-Mediterranean bioclimatic belt and has a dry Mediterranean pluviseasonal-oceanic bioclimate (Rivas-Martínez et al. 2011). Biogeographically, the territory is in the West Iberian Mediterranean Province (Rivas-Martínez et al. 2017). The study area was used predominantly for vineyards for at least the last 100 years until recently, and the area occupied by vineyards has declined from 80 to 20% of the territory since the 1950s. There are several reasons for the abandonment of vineyards, the most important of which are the low soil productivity, the migration of the rural population towards the cities – mainly to the capital, Madrid – and the EU policy

promoting the grubbing-up of vines (Common Market Organization 2001, 2008). Since the vineyards belonged to small landowners the abandonment occurred randomly as they ceased their agricultural activity. The territory not dedicated to vineyards is occupied by natural vegetation (Vaquero Perea et al. 2020), in a plant landscape mainly constituted by patches of sclerophyllous oak (*Quercus rotundifolia*) woodlands, *Retama sphaerocarpa* tall shrublands, *Lavandula pedunculata* and *Thymus mastichina* low scrublands, and extensive grasslands mostly characterized by a high diversity of ephemeral plants. The study area is part of a typical traditional Mediterranean land-use system with few clearly-defined boundaries between farmlands and woodlands (Papanastasis 2007), and in which old fields form part of a dynamic equilibrium.

Sampling design

Our field research was based on the study of a chronosequence including six plots of abandoned vineyards (1, 3, 7, 11, 25, 40 years of abandonment in 2016), and one plot that had not been used as a vineyard in at least the last 60 years. In each plot, three random quadrats $(1m^2)$ within the areas covered by annual grasslands – the most abundant vegetation in all the study plots – were established as permanent plots (Fig. 1B). These kinds of permanent sites allow the observation of temporal vegetation dynamics (Chytrý et al. 2019; Bello et al. 2020). The procedure for choosing and identifying the time since the abandonment of each plot is explained in Valverde-Asenjo et al. (2020).

The field sampling took place in the second half of May when the grasslands are at the peak of their development. We studied vegetation attributes and soil properties in 2016 and 2020. These two years were climatically similar, so the interannual variability that is so characteristic of the Mediterranean climate is assumed to be buffered. The study of the chronosequence in both years will show if temporal patterns along the chronosequence are maintained in a short term such as five years and how each plot evolves throughout this time. These permanent plots are based on regular observation of temporal vegetation dynamics using sampling units with a fixed location in time, while the sampling approach remains consistent (de Bello et al. 2020).

The plant species in each quadrat were identified and their coverage was estimated as a percentage. The vegetation inventory included vascular plants, bryophytes, lichens and fungi. The percentage of bare soil and stones was also estimated. This information allows us to determine the between-plot floristic succession and the within-plot floristic dynamics. Each species was also assigned to its corresponding growth form. The following five growth forms were identified in our study to use in large-scale comparisons: bryophytes, chamaephytes, hemicryptophytes, thallophytes and therophytes. Based on the known plant physiological characteristics that can potentially be linked to biogeochemical cycles, eight plant functional traits were recognized in order to explain ecosystem functionality: Ascomycota-symbionts, cryptogams, hemiparasites, latex bearing plants, N-fixers, N-compounds (alkaloids+cyclopeptides) bearing plants, silica accumulators, sulphur accumulators and terpenoid accumulators. An undetermined plant functional trait was also taken into account. Coverages of plant growth forms and plant functional traits were determined as the number of quadrats in which they were found.

Soil was sampled at the same time as the vegetation was releved. Soil was collected within the contiguous 1×1 m quadrat outside the $1m^2$ quadrat established for vegetation

sampling as a permanent site (Quintana et al. 2021). Soil samples were taken using two cores with a diameter of 5 cm from the top 0-5 cm in each quadrat.

Laboratory methods

Soil samples conditioned in plastic bags were taken to the laboratory and stored in a refrigerator at 4 °C until analysis. Fresh samples were sieved with a 2 mm sifter to perform all the analyses on the fine fraction. They were subdivided into two subsamples, one of which was air-dried for the physical-chemical analyses, while the other was used to determine the enzyme activity.

Soil nutrients were analysed by determining organic carbon (TOC), available phosphorus (AP) and available ammonium (NH4-N). TOC was determined using the Walkley and Black (1934) wet oxidation procedure; AP was calculated with the Olsen and Sommers method (1982); and NH4-N content was obtained by extraction in 2 M KCl and later measured by UV–visible spectrophotometry following the Keeney and Nelson (1982) method.

Nine enzyme activities were established related to the main macronutrient cycles (C, N, P and S). α -glucosidase (ALPHAGLU), β -glucosidase (BETAGLU), β -galactosidase (BETAGAL) and phenoloxidase (PHE) were studied for the C cycle; arylamidase (ARYLN), N-acetylglucosaminidase (NAG) and urease (URE) for the N cycle; phosphatase (PHOS) for the P cycle; and arylsulfatase (ARYLS) for the S cycle. All the activities were obtained following ISO 20,130 methods (ISO 2018) with the exception of phenoloxidase activity, which was obtained following DeForest (2009). All activity measurements were determined in a UV–visible spectrophotometer with a TECAN NANOQUANT INFI-NITE M200 PRO multi-well plate reader.

Statistical methods

We used both agglomerative and divisive classification methods for confirming different community types and diagnostic species. The floristic data sets corresponding to the 2016 and 2020 sampling years were subjected to an agglomerative classification method using the program JUICE 7.0 (Tichý 2002). The b-flexible linkage method (b=0.25) with Sørensen distance was chosen in order to evaluate the vegetation grouping, and determine whether it is maintained over the short term such as the five years covered by our work. Percentage cover values were square-root transformed with a view to reducing the importance of dominant species (Van der Maarel 1979). The crispness of classification was checked using the method in Botta-Dukát et al. (2005), which revealed the highest crispness at the level of two clusters for the 2016 and 2020 data sets, decreasing gradually as the number of clusters increased. A synoptic table was created with frequency values, average cover and diagnostic species. The clusters were standardized to an equal size (Tichý and Chytrý 2006) to calculate the diagnostic species values at the plant community level. We show only the diagnostic species with values of the phi coefficient (Φ) of association ≥ 0.10 for at least one cluster, and with a statistically significant affinity at the probability level < 0.01 according to Fisher's exact test. A divisive clustering classification was performed on the 2016 and 2020 floristic data sets using TWINSPAN (Two-Way Indicator Species Analysis; Hill 1979). We chose the default cut levels since data were in the form of estimated percentage cover and we reduced the minimum group size to 4 because there were small datasets.

A generalized linear model with Poisson distribution and logistic link function was performed to assess the influence of the time since abandonment and/or the sampling year on plant growth forms and functional traits coverage, as the number of quadrats where they occur. For each plant growth form or plant functional trait, abundance was taken as the dependent variable while the sampling year (2016, 2020) and type of grassland (early- and late-abandoned grassland as shown by the cluster analysis) were considered as independent variables. The interaction between sampling year and type of grassland was tested in all cases, so a maximum model was developed including both sampling year and type of grassland variables and their interaction, followed by a backward stepwise selection of variables to obtain a final model with all its terms significant. If the interaction term was significant, it was split into two new models, one for each level of the variable type, to assess the different effect of the sampling year on the growth form/functional trait.

A linear regression model was performed to analyse soil physical-chemical and enzyme activity, taking the sampling year and the grassland type as independent variables and the value of the soil parameter in each quadrat as the dependent variable. Soil values were previously box-cox transformed to ensure normality and homoscedasticity. The variables were selected as described in the previous paragraph. All regression models were carried out in R (R Core Team 2022, version 4.1.3) under RStudio (RStudio Team 2022, version 2022.02.3 Build 492). The inclusion of the grassland variable as a random clustering factor in the models was previously ruled out as fittings were singular with a low ICC and a higher AIC than the models without the random component.

The relationships between plant growth forms and functional traits and soil enzyme activity and chemical features were also investigated through the multivariate redundancy analysis (RDA). Both functional traits and abundance of growth forms were standardized by the Hellinger method, while soil parameters were normalized and linearized by transformation with the box-cox method. The soil variables with the greatest impact on communities were selected by means of permutation tests following a forward stepwise procedure. The significance of each ordination component was also assessed through permutation tests. Only significant axes and soil variables were used to make the biplots. These analyses were done in R with the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2019).

Results

Plant-community succession

The agglomerative classification performed on the floristic composition of the 21 permanent quadrats sampled in 2016 showed that they were arranged in two major groups (A, B) according to the crispness of the classification (Table 1). Both groups share a large number of high-frequency species. Some diagnostic species were also identified in each group. Group A included 9 relevés corresponding to the most recently abandoned vineyards (1, 3 and 7 years respectively). This early-stage grassland gathered a total of 56 species, with an average number of 20.6 species per sampling. Low grasses and herbs such as *Vulpia myuros*, *Bromus tectorum*, *Trifolium arvensis* and *Hypochoeris glabra* had higher frequencies and cover. In this group, only *Andryala integrifolia* acted as a diagnostic species, and with a moderate score. Group B clustered 12 relevés corresponding to the plots abandoned for the

Table 1 Synoptic table of the
grasslands sampled in 2016
showing the frequency and
average cover (upper number) of
species in each of the two plant
communities (columns) obtained
in the classification analysis.
Only species with a frequency of
>30% in at least one group are
included. Dark-grey, mid-grey
and light-grey shaded values
indicate diagnostic species with
fidelity ($\Phi > 0.3$), ($\Phi > 0.2$) and
$(\Phi > 0.1)$, respectively.
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Group	1	2
Number of plots	9	12
Number of species per Group	56	75
Average number of species	20.6	30
Simpson dissimilarity	0.4211	0.3521
Average Whitttaker beta-diversity	1.7097	1.4931
Andrvala integrifolia	78 ^{5.7}	
Tuberaria guttata		58 ^{34.3}
Tortella nitidula		75 ^{20.4}
Andrvala arenaria		92 ^{4.3}
Corynephorus fasciculatus	33 ^{1.3}	92 ^{3.6}
Psilurus incurvus		67 ^{3.5}
Vulpia myuros	100 ^{13.3}	$100^{11.9}$
Bromus tectorum	$100^{8.4}$	831.6
Trifolium arvense	89 ^{18.1}	67 ^{4.9}
Hypochoeris glabra	8912.1	83 ^{4.3}
Rumex bucephalophorus	89 ^{3.8}	100 ^{3.3}
Logfia minima	89 ^{1.6}	100 ^{2.3}
Leontodon longirostris	56 ^{5.6}	100 ^{5.1}
Vulpia ciliata	67 ^{2.7}	$100^{5.7}$
Brassica barrelieri	89 ^{6.1}	58 ^{3.9}
Tolpis barbata	$78^{8.1}$	92 ^{2.8}
Hymenocarpos lotoides	78 ^{6.9}	92 ^{6.7}
Galium parisiense	11^{1}	831.7
Bryum sp.	67 ^{18.5}	67 ^{19.5}
Avena barbata	67 ^{3.5}	50 ^{2.2}
Triolium glomeratum	67 ³	50 ^{2.3}
Crepis capillaris	33 ^{1.7}	58 ^{6.3}
Silene colorata	$22^{2.5}$	58 ^{1.9}
Erodium cicutarium	$22^{1.5}$	58 ^{1.4}
Hymenocarpos cornicina	11 ¹	58 ⁷
Biserrula pelecinus	11 ²	58 ^{2.3}
Jasione montana	56 ^{2.6}	33 ^{1.3}
Sanguisorba verrucosa	33 ²	50 ³
Lathyrus angulatus	44 ^{4.8}	42 ^{1.4}
Ornithopus compressus	44 ³	25 ^{2.3}
Anthemis arvensis	44 ^{1.8}	17^{1}
Bellardia trixago	44 ^{7.3}	25 ^{3.3}
Vicia lathyroides	11^{1}	42 ¹
Trifolium cherleri	33 ¹	33 ^{2.3}
Taeniatherum caput-medusae	33 ^{2.7}	$17^{1.5}$
Carlina corymbosa	22^{3}	33 ^{6.3}
Silene gallica	11^{1}	33 ^{1.5}
Ortegia hispanica	22 ⁹	33 ^{3.5}
Eryngium campestre	22^{1}	25 ^{1.7}
Spergula arvensis	33 ¹	
Coronilla dura		58 ^{1.7}
Cladonia foliacea		50 ^{3.3}
Geranium molle		50 ^{1.3}
Bromus rubens		42 ^{1.6}
Neatostema apulum		42 ^{3.6}
Plantago lagopus		42 ^{1.4}
Cladonia cervicornis		42 ¹⁰



Fig. 2 Dendrogram obtained from a Twinspan classification analysis of 21 vegetation grassland samples relevéd in 2016 (a) and 2020 (b) from a chronosequence including six plots of abandoned vineyards and a plot that had not been used as a vineyard in at least the last 60 years

longest time (over a decade). This late-stage grassland encompassed a total of 75 species with an average of 30 species per sample. The Cistaceaea *Tuberaria guttata* and the moss *Tortella nitidula* were the diagnostic species with the highest phi scores. In this first year of sampling (2016), both the Whittaker beta-diversity and Simpson dissimilarity index showed higher scores in the early-stage than in the late-stage grassland (Table 1). Divisive classification supported the two main groups obtained by agglomerative hierarchical classification (Fig. 2a). One group included the most recently abandoned vineyards (1, 3 and 7 years post abandonment) and was floristically characterized by *Andryala integrifolia*, while the other group encompassed the vineyards abandoned for over a decade and had *Andryala arenaria* and *Tortella nitidula* as characteristic species.

The agglomerative classification performed on the 21 relevés sampled in 2020 revealed a similar pattern to five years earlier. Relevés were gathered in two major groups (A, B) according to the crispness of the classification (Table 2). Again, both groups shared a large number of species with a high frequency in each frequency group. Group A encompassed the earliest abandoned plots (now 5, 7 and 11 years post-abandonment respectively), including nine relevés with a total of 51 species and 23.8 as average number. These grasslands showed the highest frequency in therophytes such as *Vulpia myuros*, *Trifolium arvense*, *Rumex bucephalophorus*, *Tolpis barbata*, *Bromus tectorum*, *Andryala integrifolia* and *Trifolium glomeratum*. Group B gathered the longest abandoned plots, the same 12 plots as in 2016 (but now 15, 29 and 44 years post-abandonment, plus the control), and included a total of 66 species, with an average of 26 species per quadrat. Group B showed some diagnostic species such as *Tortella nitidula*, *Andryala arenaria* and *Tuberaria guttata* already identi-

.

Group	1	2
Number of plots	9	12
Number of species per Group	51	66
Average number of species	23.89	26.08
Simpson dissimilarity	0.3257	0.3692
Average Whitttaker beta-diversity	1.1349	1.5304
Tortella nitidula		100 ^{29.9}
Andryala arenaria		100 ^{8.7}
Syntrichia ruralis	11 ²	75 ^{3.7}
Tuberaria guttata		67 ^{11.3}
Vulpia mvuros	$100^{8.2}$	$100^{3.3}$
Trifolium arvense	$100^{4.6}$	67 ^{9.4}
Rumex bucephalophorus	100 ^{3.8}	67 ^{1.5}
Tolpis barbata	100 ^{5.3}	75 ^{2.6}
Hypochoeris glabra	78 ^{5.1}	$100^{2.3}$
Corvnephorus fasciculatus	67 ^{3.2}	92 ²
Brvum sp.	89 ^{6.5}	$42^{8.8}$
Brassica barrelieri	89 ¹⁴	42^{3}
Jasione montana	89 ²	$42^{1.2}$
Hymenocarpos lotoides	78 ^{1.7}	83 ^{5.1}
Vulnia ciliata	78 ^{3.6}	67 ^{2.4}
Logfia minima	33 ^{1.7}	58 ^{1.6}
Carlina corvmbosa	44 ^{11.3}	33 ^{4.8}
Riserrula pelecinus	332.3	$42^{1.2}$
Bromus ruhens	22^{1}	42 ¹
Crenis canillaris	44 ^{2.8}	50 ^{2.5}
Frodium cicutarium	56 ^{1.2}	58 ^{1.3}
Galium parisiense	33 ¹	92 ^{1.3}
Holeus setiglumis	44 ³	17 ¹
Hymenocarpos cornicina	332.3	$42^{2.6}$
Silene colorata	78 ^{4.9}	58 ^{6.3}
Taeniatherum canut-medusae	332.3	8 ²
Trifolium charlari	56 ^{2.8}	8 8 ²
Trifolium glomeratum	67 ^{2.2}	8 ²
Vulnia ciliata	783.6	67 ^{2.4}
Vulnia membranacea	56 ^{4.4}	8 ³
Leontodon longirostris	56 ^{8.6}	42 ^{2.6}
Loofia gallica	331.7	5Q ^{1.6}
Negtostema anulum	11 ⁴	20 21.6
Ornithopus compressus	11	05 Q1
Ortagia hispanica	229.3	25 ^{8.3}
Psilurus incurnus	33 ^{2.7}	67 ^{1.8}
Pumor angiogannug	33^{2}	25^2
Kumex unglocurpus	22 ¹	$\frac{23}{12^2}$
Andmala integrifolia	33 791.6	42
Anaryaia integrijolia	672.5	
Arthemic muchanic	221.3	
Anthemis arvensis	33^{2}	
Avena barbata	33 22^{2}	
Lactuca viminea	33	= o2.6
Lavanaula peaunculata		50 ²
Polycarpon tetraphyllon		50~ 502.5
Ciaaonia joliacea		50 ²¹²
Centrantnus calcurapa		42.2
Cladonia cervicornis		42
Bufonia tenuifolia	221	331
Lathyrus angulatus	331	812

fied in 2016 but whose frequency increased in 2020. The moss *Syntrichia ruralis* was also included this time as a diagnostic species with a high fidelity score. A comparison of the two years showed that the pattern of biodiversity indexes was reversed between 2016 and 2020, when both indexes had higher scores in mature grasslands than in grasslands growing on earlier-abandoned vineyards (Table 2). Divisive classification at the third division level confirmed the two main groups were the same as those obtained with agglomerative methods (Fig. 2b). One group with no characteristic species included the most recently abandoned vineyards (5, 7 and 11 years post-abandonment), while the other group gathered the rest of the plots (vineyards abandoned 15, 29 and 44 years earlier, and the control plot), and this method showed only the Compositae *Andryala arenaria* as a diagnostic species. Numerical classification thus revealed two main plant communities in 2016: early-stage grasslands in the first post-abandonment decade and late-stage grasslands after the first post-abandonment decade of abandonment.

A Poisson regression to examine the evolution of the growth form cover through static and dynamic chronosequences showed the following most relevant patterns (Fig. 3). In three growth forms (bryophytes, hemicryptophytes and therophytes), their cover was influenced by both the grassland stage and the sampling year but with different pattern dynamics. Bryophyte cover increased significantly from early- to late-stage grasslands independently of the sampling year, and also from 2016 to 2020 (Fig. 3a). In contrast, hemicryptophyte cover significantly decreased along the chronosequence independently of the sampling year (Fig. 3b). Therophytes showed significant differences in cover between early-stage and latestage grasslands depending on the sampling year (Fig. 3c). There was a more significant decrease in therophyte coverage in 2020 than in 2016, which was more notable in late-stage plots. In addition, chamaephyte cover only showed differences along the dynamic chronosequence (Fig. 3d) and thallophytes along the static chronosequence (Fig. 3e). Specifically, thallophyte cover increased from early-stage to late-stage grassland, whereas chamaephyte cover increased significantly from 2016 to 2020. Overall, the average cover of all growth forms increased along the chronosequence independently of the sampling year, with the exception of hemicryptophytes which showed the opposite tendency, and therophytes whose pattern (increasing or decreasing along the chronosequence) was dependent on the sampling year.

A Poisson regression to examine the evolution of plant functional trait cover showed the following (Fig. 4). Latex-accumulator plants decreased from 2016 to 2020, and with lower cover in late grasslands regardless of the sampling year (Fig. 4a). Terpenoid-accumulator plants increased in coverage throughout the sampling year but no differences were found between the grassland type (early or late) –Fig. 4b–. Cryptogam cover was always greater in late than in early grassland, but while early grassland had a significantly higher cover in 2016, late grassland did not show any significant differences between years (Fig. 4c). Coverage of N-fixers was significantly greater in 2016 than in 2020 for both early and late grassland, but the decrease in coverage in early grassland was much greater than the decrease in late grassland (Fig. 4d). In N-compounds accumulators there was a clear effect of interaction (Fig. 4e). In 2016 cover of this functional trait was higher in late grasslands than in early grasslands but no differences were found in 2020. While no significant differences were found in the coverage of silica-accumulator plants in early grassland between 2016 and 2020, their coverage in late plots decreased significantly from 2016 to 2020 (Fig. 4f). In



Fig. 3 Violin plots showing the cover distribution of growth forms corresponding to bryophytes (a), hemicryptophytes (b), therophytes (c), chamaephytes (d) and thallophytes (e) between early-stage and late-stage grassland for the 2016 (in red) and 2020 (in violet) sampling years. Inside each violin plot a 95% confidence interval for mean coverage is shown as a thin colour bar. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001

type

contrast, sulphur-accumulator plants showed no significant cover differences in late grassland between 2016 and 2020, although their coverage increased significantly in early grassland in 2020 compared to 2016 (Fig. 4 g). Physiological traits such as symbiosis with fungi or hemiparasitism also revealed notable results. Hemiparasites coverage was higher in early grassland independently of the sampling year, and increased from 2016 to 2020 (Fig. 4 h). Ascosymbionts were absent in early grasslands, and their cover in late grasslands decreased in 2020 compared to 2016 (Fig. 4i).



Fig. 4 Violin plots showing the cover distribution of functional traits corresponding to latex-secretors (a), terpenoid-accumulators (b), Cryptogams (c), N-fixers (d), N-containing compounds (e), silica-accumulators (f), sulphur-accumulators (g) Ascomycota-symbionts (h) and hemiparasites (i) between early-stage and late-stage grassland for the 2016 (in red) and 2020 (in violet) sampling years. Inside each violin plot a 95% confidence interval for mean coverage is shown as a thin colour bar. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001. The plant functional traits are abbreviated as follows: Latex-Bear=latex bearing plants, Silica-Acc=silica accumulators, Sulphur-Acc=sulphur accumulators, Terpenoid-Acc=terpenoid accumulators, Asco-Symbionts, N-Bear=N-bearing compounds (alkaloids+cyclopeptides)



Fig. 5 Violin plots showing the soil TOC and nutrient contents between the early-stage and late-stage grassland for the 2016 (in red) and 2020 (in violet) sampling years. Inside each violin plot a 95% confidence interval for mean coverage is shown as a thin colour bar. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001

Succession in soil properties and enzyme activities

A Poisson regression on the soil TOC, nutrient contents and enzyme activities revealed the following patterns. Soil TOC content was significantly higher in late-stage grasslands, and AP and NH4-N content showed a significant increase in 2020 (Fig. 5a-c). In regard to the enzyme activities related to C cycle, ALPHAGLU and BETAGLU activities increased significantly over the sampling years, and their activities were greater in plots located in late-stage grasslands regardless of the sampling year (Fig. 6a,b). BETAGAL activity only showed a significant increase from early to late grasslands (Fig. 6c) and PHE increased significantly throughout the sampling year (Fig. 6d). In regard to soil enzyme activities relating to the N cycle, ARYLN and NAG activities increased significantly throughout the sampling year (Fig. 7a,b). URE activity showed a significant decrease throughout the sampling year (Fig. 7c). In terms of enzyme activities related to the P and S cycles, it is notable that both PHOS and ARYLS activities increased significantly in late-stage grasslands (Fig. 7d,e).

Ecological succession

The RDA calculated by stepwise selection to observe the distribution of the samples in relation to the plant growth forms and soil factors showed that the soil variables with most impact on communities were soil PHOS and PHE activity (Fig. 8). PHOS activity was closely related to Axis 1 and PHE activity with Axis 2. Partial correlation coefficients between growth forms and soil factors revealed that PHOS activity positively correlated with bryophyte and thallophyte cover, and negatively with therophyte and hemicryptophyte cover (Fig. 9). PHE activity was positively correlated with chamaephyte and hemicryptophyte cover and negatively with therophytes.

The RDA calculated by stepwise selection to observe the distribution of the samples in relation to the plant functional traits and soil factors showed that the soil variables with the greatest impact on communities were PHOS and URE activity and AP content; the first were closely linked to Axis 1 and the second to Axis 2 (Fig. 10). PHOS activity had a positive correlation with cryptogams, terpenoid accumulators, ascosymbionts and alkaloids, and a negative correlation with silica accumulators, sulphur accumulators and latex secretors (Fig. 11). URE activity was positively correlated with N-fixers and silica accumulators and negatively with cryptogams. Finally, soil AP content was positively correlated with N-fixers and negatively with cryptogams.



Fig. 6 Violin plots showing the soil enzyme activities related to C cycle between the early-stage and late-stage grassland for the 2016 (in red) and 2020 (in violet) sampling years. Inside each violin plot a 95% confidence interval for mean coverage is shown as a thin colour bar. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001. The enzymes are abbreviated as follows: ALPHAGLU= α -glucosidase, BETA-GLU= β -glucosidase, BETAGAL= β -galactosidase and PHE=phenoloxidase.

Discussion

Grassland floristic replacement

Plant succession focuses on spatial species replacement over time (Clements 1916), distinguishing pioneers from late successional species (Bazzaz 1979). In a classic plant succession scheme under a dry Mediterranean climate, annual grasslands play an important role in the initial stages before fields are finally encroached by woody vegetation encompassing low and tall shrubland, and with sclerophyllous *Quercus* forest acting as the climax (Rivas-Martínez et al. 2011). This model fits the pattern of abandoned Mediterranean vineyards. In the eastern Mediterranean there is rapid encroachment by woody vegetation accompanied by a decrease in annual plant species during the first decades of the succession (Ne'eman and Izhaki 1996); whereas in the western Mediterranean annual grasslands remain longer and with more cover after vineyards are abandoned, coupled with a slower encroachment of woody species (Houssard et al. 1980; Escarré et al. 1983; Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020). Our results also clearly show that Mediterranean annual grasslands remain throughout the



Fig. 7 Violin plots showing the soil enzyme activities related to N, S and P cycles (ARYLN, NAG, URE, PHO, ARYLS) between the early-stage and late-stage grassland for the 2016 (in red) and 2020 (in violet) sampling years. Inside each violin plot a 95% confidence interval for mean coverage is shown as a thin colour bar. * = p < 0.05, ** = p < 0.01, *** = p < 0.001

succession and play an important role both as a pioneer and as late successional vegetation, albeit floristically differentiated based on the identification of frequent abundant characteristic and diagnostic plant species, all corresponding to Mediterranean annual low-growing ephemeral herb and grass vegetation (*Helianthemetea guttati*, *Helianthemetalia guttati*) (Mucina et al. 2016). Some ruderal plants were recognized in early-stage succession grasslands (*Brassica barrelieri*, *Andryala integrifolia*), whereas late-stage grasslands included symbionts with Ascomycota (*Tuberaria guttata*) and cryptogams. This floristic change along the static chronosequence was not related to clearly defined patterns in other biodiversity descriptors such as biodiversity indexes more closely linked to the sampling year (dynamic chronosequence).

It should be noted that both early- and late-stage grasslands can be included in the habitat type "Mediterranean to Atlantic open, dry, acid and neutral grassland" in the European Red List of Habitats that have been assessed as vulnerable (VU) based on a severe qualitative decline (Janssen et al. 2016), and within which no sub-habitats have been distinguished. Since the grassland stages identified can be related to the quality indicators recognized for this habitat type (e.g. medium disturbance regime, absence of nitrophilous species and absence of signs of advanced secondary succession such as encroachment of chamaephytes or shrub species), we here propose to distinguish mature-stage grasslands, which would warrant further assessment. This knowledge is useful from the point of view of biodiversity and conservation for policies regarding the management of oldfield lands. It also should be noted that our study failed to pinpoint the key step at which the plant-community replacement (between early-stage and late-stage grassland) occurs. The history of use while the vineyard was active (amount of fertilizers and phytosanitary products, ploughing regime and intensity, among others) could determine the point when this change occurs (Jakovac et al. 2021). It would therefore be necessary to follow the chronosequence for more years in order to identify the threshold at which one community type changes to another.



Fig. 8 Redundancy analysis triplot (RDA) showing the relationships between grassland types as circles; soil properties selected by the forward selection procedure as orange arrows; and growth forms as black triangles. The percentage of cumulative explained variance by the first two axes is 21.16. Different coloured circles depict grassland types classified as early-stage grassland (A) – in red – and late-stage grassland (B) – in blue – as detailed in Tables 1 and 2; colour intensity indicates sampling year: pale for 2016 and dark for 2020. The numbers after the group type (A or B) indicate the year after abandonment. Soil properties are abbreviated as follows: PHOS=phosphatase, PHE=phenoloxidase.

Secondary succession can also be monitored through changes in growth forms and functional traits (Tilman 1990; Robinson et al. 2015; Fan et al. 2019). Our work revealed a slow successional process where the main features were: (i) the increase in cover of all growth forms along the chronosequence, independently of the sampling year, with the exception of hemicryptophytes and therophytes; (ii) the appearance and increase along the chronosquence of certain functional traits such as Ascomycota symbionts and terpenoid accumulators. Bryophytes and lichens have been recognized as significant indicators of both early (Dettweiler-Robinson et al. 2013; Arróniz-Crespo et al. 2014) and late successional stages (García de León et al. 2016). Our results revealed that not only cryptogams, but also Ascomycota symbionts and terpenoid accumulators play an important role as indicators of late successional-stage grasslands in Mediterranean abandoned agrosystems. The fungi:bacteria ratio increases during secondary succession (Zhou et al. 2017a), which

Bryophytes





PHOS

Fig. 9 Correlogram showing the significant correlations between each plant growth form and each soil variable. Positive correlations are displayed in blue and negative correlations in red. Colour intensity and circle size are proportional to the correlation coefficients



Fig. 10 Redundancy analysis triplot (RDA) showing the relationships between grassland types as circles, soil properties selected by the forward selection procedure as orange arrows, and functional traits as black triangles. The percentage of cumulative explained variance by the first two axes is 26.02. Different coloured circles depict grassland types classified as early-stage grassland (A) – in red – and late-stage grassland (B) – in blue – as detailed in Tables 1 and 2; colour intensity indicates sampling year: pale for 2016 and dark for 2020. The numbers after the group type (A or B) indicate the year after abandonment. Soil properties are abbreviated as follows: AP=available phosphorus, PHO=phosphatase, URE=urease.

helps explain both the presence of Ascomycota symbionts and the importance of both bryophytes and thallophytes – basically lichens – in late-stage grasslands. Rates of woody succession in old-field plant succession are highly correlated with both annual temperature and soil fertility, and decrease with latitude (Wright and Fridley 2010). A typical plant succession in a dry abandoned agricultural landscape includes a first-stage encroachment by dwarf shrubs after the early colonization of grasslands (Debusche 1996, Bonet and Pausas 2012). In our study this role corresponded largely to lavender (*Lavandula pedunculata*), which accounts for the importance of terpenoid accumulators (typically in Lamiaceae species) in late-stage succession. Cover of N-fixers, whose direction of change – according to our results – was dependent on the sampling year, could be used as an indicator of interannual climate variability since their abundance decreases in extreme drought (Quintana et al. 2021).



Ecological changes

There is growing interest in the fact that successional patterns in plant community changes are linked to corresponding changes in soil microbiota (Chang and Turner 2019). Land abandonment causes an increase in soil organic matter (Vesterdal et al. 2002; Zhu et al. 2010; Raiesi 2012a) and microbiota activity (García and Hernández 1997; Raiesi and Salek-Gilani 2018), and has been related to a decrease in organic N mineralization associated with soil organic matter variation (Zhang et al. 2012; Raiesi 2012b). Our results confirm that soil TOC content and enzyme activities related to labile C cycle and N, P and S cycles increased significantly in soils under late-stage grasslands in comparison with soils under early-stage grasslands in dry Mediterranean abandoned agrosystems. However, our study also revealed this improvement in functionality over time to be linked with a certain floristic occurrence

related mainly to plant symbionts with fungi (e.g. *Tuberaria guttata*) and increased cryptogam cover. The N cycle may be important in driving this pattern since the increase in fungal populations is one of the main changes taking place in soil microbiota as the succession progresses (Zhou et al. 2017b); and enzyme activity corresponding to the N cycle has been related to soil fungi populations (Muruganandam et al. 2009). Secondary succession also increases nitrogen availability in recently disturbed sites, followed by a decline during the later stages of succession (Vitousek et al. 1989). Bryophyte colonization plays an important role in early secondary succession after a major disturbance such as fire (Castoldi et al. 2013; Wills et al. 2018), and enhances soil development and supports important ecological functions such as preventing erosion (Casermeiro et al. 2004). Our study revealed higher bryophyte cover in late-stage grassland, where the role and relationships between soil and bryophytes would require further investigation.

Vineyard abandonment drives an increase in the activities of soil hydrolytic enzymes such as PHOS, and reduces oxidative enzyme activities (Sciubba et al. 2021). This is reinforced by our results, since a higher phosphatase activity was found in soils in late-stage grasslands, and this enzyme has a close relationship with the soil organic fraction in semiarid ecosystems (García and Hernández 1997; Jiang et al. 2009). In our chronosequence we also found significant differences in ARYLS soil activity, which increased over the time of abandonment (Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020). This enzyme controls the S cycle in the soil (Chen et al. 2016) and its increased activity in soils of late-stage grasslands may be connected to the decline in available S from the active vineyard - in which sulphur compounds are commonly added to control fungal vine pests - to meet the requirements of living organisms for this nutrient. Contradictory responses have been reported for urease activity in the secondary succession, from an increase (Haripal and Saoo 2013) to a decrease (Sciubba et al. 2021). Our results showed that urease activity is linkable to the sampling year and directly to the cover of N-fixers and silica accumulators. P availability has been reported to decrease during the first decade of abandonment, which may suggest an ephemeral fertilization footprint in abandoned vineyards (Valverde-Asenjo et al. 2020). Our results showed that this fertilization footprint is restricted to the first years after abandonment, although this nutrient as NH4-N had a significant interannual variation. The direction of AP can be explained by the sequestration of this limiting nutrient by the soil microbiota and perennial plants (Du et al. 2007; Dölle and Schmidt 2009), whose cover increased over the sampling years. We also found that the activity of an oxidative enzyme such as PHE increased significantly with woody perennial biotypes such as chamaephytes, which may be due to the fact that the plant remains of these perennial species are rich in lignins and terpenoids compared to those of ephemeral plants.

Conclusion

We conclude that there is a change in plant communities over time during the secondary succession after the abandonment of agricultural activity, from first-colonizing to late-successional grasslands, coupled with changes in soil microbiota activities and physicochemical properties, all of which has important consequences on ecosystem functionality. Based on soil quality a sub-habitat type is proposed within the "Mediterranean to Atlantic open, dry, acid and neutral grassland" (European Red List of Habitats) under the name "Mediter-

ranean to Atlantic open, dry, acid and neutral late-stage grassland". This new sub-habitat type is characterized by the occurrence of the symbiont with the Ascomycota plant *Tuber-aria guttata* and a high cover of cryptogams combined with high hydrolytic enzyme activity and TOC content in the soil.

Author contributions All authors contributed to the conception and design of this study, led by JAM and JRQ. Field data were provided by JAM and JRQ. Laboratory analyses were carried out by JQR and JPMS. Statistical analyses were performed by ASJ and JPMS. The first draft of the manuscript was written by JAM and JQR and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript.

Funding This work has been supported by Fitosolum UCM-Research Group. Open Access funding provided thanks to the CRUE-CSIC agreement with Springer Nature.

Data Availability Associated data in a data repository.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors have no conflict or financial interest to report.

Ethical approval Not applicable.

Consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

References

- Agami M, Eshel A, Waisel Y (1998) Plant recolonization after severe degradation: a case study in the Negev highlands of Israel. J Arid Environ 38:411–419. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1006/jare.1997.0357
- Arróniz-Crespo M, Pérez-Ortega S, De los Ríos A, Green TGA, Ochoa-Hueso R et al (2014) Bryophyte-Cyanobacteria associations during primary succession in recently deglaciated areas of Tierra del Fuego (Chile). PLoS ONE 9(5):e96081. doi:https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0096081
- Bazzaz FA (1979) The physiological ecology of plant succession. Ann Rev Ecol 10:351–371. https://doi. org/10.1146/annurev.es.10.110179.002031
- Bonet A, Pausas JG (2012) Species richness and cover along a 60-year chronosequence in old-fields of Southeastern Spain. Plant Ecol 174:257–270. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:VEGE.0000049106.96330.9c
- Botta-Dukát Z, Chytrý M, Hájková P, Havlová M (2005) Vegetation of lowland wet meadows along a climatic continentality gradient in central Europe. Preslia 77:89–111. DOI: https://doi.org/10.105 5/s-2005-837762
- Carpenter DE, Barbour MG, Bahre CJ (1986) Old field succession in Mojave desert shrub. Madroño 33:111-122
- Casermeiro MA, Molina JA, de la Cruz Caravaca MT, Hernando Costa J, Hernando Massanet MI, Moreno PS (2004) Influence of scrubs on runoff and sediment loss in soils of Mediterranean climate. CATENA 57:91–107. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0341-8162(03)00160-7

- Castoldi E, Quintana JR, Mata Ricardo G, Molina JA (2013) Early post-fire plant succession in slash-pile prescribed burns of a sub-Mediterranean managed forest. Plant Ecol Evol 146:272–278. https://doi. org/10.5091/plecevo.2013.848
- Chang CC, Turner BL (2019) Ecological succession in a changing world. J Ecol 107:503–509
- Chen H, Yang L, Wen L, Luo P, Liu L et al (2016) Effects of nitrogen deposition on soil sulfur cycling. Global Biogeochem Cycles 30:1568–1577. https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GB005423
- Chytrý M, Chiarucci A, Pärtel M, Pillar VD (2019) Progress in vegetation science: trends over the past three decades and new horizons. J Veg Sci 30:1–4. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12697
- Clements FE (1916) Plant succession: analysis of the development of vegetation. Carnegie Institution of Washington, Washington. https://doi.org/10.5962/bhl.title.56234
- Common Market Organization (2001, 2008) https://agriculture.gov.mt/en/arpa/Pages/commonMarketOrganisation.aspx
- Consorcio Sierra Oeste (2009) Análisis del subsistema físico natural. Estrategia de desarrollo comarcal de la sierra Oeste de Madrid. Dirección General de Agricultura y Ganadería. Consejería de Medio Ambiente, Comunidad de Madrid, Madrid, pp 2007–2013
- Dana ED, Mota JF (2006) Vegetation and soil recovery on gypsum outcrops in semi-arid Spain. J Arid Environ 65:444–459. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2005.08.009
- de Bello F, Valencia E, Ward D, Hallett L (2020) Why we still need permanent plots for vegetation science. J Veg Sci 31:679–685. https://doi.org/10.1111/jvs.12928
- Debussche M, Escarré J, Lepart J, Houssard C, Lavorel S (1996) Changes in Mediterranean plant succession: old-fields revisited. J Veg Sci 7:519–526. https://doi.org/10.2307/3236300
- DeForest JL (2009) The influence of time, storage temperature, and ubstrate age on potential soil enzyme activity in acidic forest soils using MUB-linked substrates and I-DOPA. Soil Biol Biochem 41:1180– 1186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2009.02.029
- Dengler J, Janišová M, Török P, Wellstein C (2014) Biodiversity of Palaearctic grasslands: a synthesis. Agric Ecosyst Environ 182:1–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2013.12.015
- Dettweiler-Robinson E, Ponzetti JM, Bakker JD (2013) Long-term changes in biological soil crust cover and composition. Ecol Process 2:5. https://doi.org/10.1186/2192-1709-2-5
- Dixon AP, Faber-Langendoen D, Josse C, Morrison J, Loucks CJ (2014) Distribution mapping of world grassland types. J Biogeogr 41:2003–2019. https://doi.org/10.1111/jbi.12381
- Doblas-Miranda E, Martínez-Vilalta J, Lloret F, Álvarez A, Ávila A et al (2015) Reassessing global change research priorities in mediterranean terrestrial ecosystems: how far have we come and where do we go from here? Global Ecol Biogeogr 24:25–43. https://doi.org/10.1111/geb.12224
- Dölle M, Schmidt W (2009) Impact of tree species on nutrient and light availability: evidence from a permanent plot study of old-field succession. Plant Ecol 203:273–287. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-008-9547-2
- Du F, Shao HB, Shan L, Liang ZS, Shao MA (2007) Secondary succession and its effects on soil moisture and nutrition in abandoned old-fields of hilly region of Loess Plateau, China. Colloids Surf B 58:278–285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.colsurfb.2007.04.002
- Escarré J, Houssard C, Debussche M, Lepart J (1983) Evolution de la végétation et du sol après abandon cultural en région méditerranéenne: étude de succession dans les Garrigues du Montpelliérais (France). Acta Oecol 4:221–239
- Faber-Langendoen D, Josse C (2010) World grasslands and biodiversity patterns. NatureServe, Arlington
- Fan K, Jing T, Zang L, Yao J, Huang J et al (2019) Changes in plant functional groups during secondary succession in a Tropical montane rain forest. Forests 10:1134. https://doi.org/10.3390/f10121134
- García C, Hernández T (1997) Biological and biochemical indicators in derelict soils subject to erosion. Soil Biol Biochem 29:171–177. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0038-0717(96)00294-5
- García de León D, Neuenkamp L, Gerz M, Oja E, Zobel M (2016) Secondary succession in alvar grasslands – do changes in vascular plant and cryptogam communities correspond? Folia Geobot 51:285–296. DOI https://doi.org/10.1007/s12224-016-9260-1
- Haripal K, Sahoo S (2013) Physicochemical and biochemical reclamation of soil through secondary succession. Open J Soil Sci 3:235–243. doi: https://doi.org/10.4236/ojss.2013.35028
- Hill MO (1979) Twinspan a fortran program for arranging multivariate data in an ordered two-way table by classification of the individuals and attributes. Cornell University, Ithaca, New York
- Houssard C, Escarré J, Bomane F (1980) Development of species diversity in some mediterranean plant communities. Vegetatio 43:59–72. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00121018
- ISO (2018) ISO 20130: Soil quality-measurement of enzyme activity patterns in soil samples using colorimetric substrates in micro-wells plates
- Jakovac CC, Junqueira AB, Crouzeilles R, Peña-Claros M, Mesquita RCG, Bongers F (2021) The role of land-use history in driving successional pathways and its implications for the restoration of tropical forests. Biol Rev 96:1114–1134. https://doi.org/10.1111/brv.12694

- Janssen JAM, Rodwell JS, García Criado M, Gubbay S, Haynes T et al (2016) European Red List of Habitats - Part 2. Terrestrial and freshwater habitats. Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg
- Jiang JP, Xiong YC, Jiang HM, Ye DY, Song YJ, Li FM (2009) Soil microbial activity during secondary vegetation succession in semiarid abandoned lands of Loess Plateau. Pedosphere 19(09):735–747. https:// doi.org/10.1016/S1002-0160
- Keeney DR, Nelson DW (1982) Nitrogen-inorganic forms. In: Page AL (ed) Methods of soil analysis, Agronomy Monograph 9, Part 2 Chemical and Microbiological Properties, 2nd edn. ASA, SSSA, Madison, WI, pp 643–698
- MacDonald D, Grabtree JR, Wiesinger G, Dax T, Stamou N, Fleury P, Gutiérrez-Lazpita J, Gibon A (2000) Agricultural abandonment in mountain areas of Europa: Environmental consequences and policy response. J Environ Manage 59:47–69. https://doi.org/10.1006/jema.1999.0335
- MAPA (2020) Estudio sobre el acceso a la Tierra: documento final del Grupo Focal de Acceso a la Tierra. Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación, Madrid
- McAuliffe JR (1988) Markovian dynamics of simple and complex desert plant communities. Am Nat 131:459–490. http://www.jstor.org/stable/2461740
- Mucina L, Bültmann H, Dier
 ßen K, Theurillat J-P, Raus T et al (2016) Vegetation of Europe: hierarchical floristic classification system of vascular plant, bryophyte, lichen, and algal communities. Appl Veg Sci 19:3–264. https://doi.org/10.1111/avsc.12257
- Muruganandam S, Israel DW, Robarge WP (2009) Activities of nitrogen-mineralization enzymes associated with soil aggregate size fractions of three tillage systems. Soil Sci Soc Am J 73:751–759. https://doi. org/10.2136/sssaj2008.0231
- Ne'eman G, Izhaki I (1996) Colonization in an abandoned East-Mediterranean vineyard. J Veg Sci 7:465– 472. https://doi.org/10.2307/3236294
- Oksanen J et al(2019) vegan: Community Ecology Package R package version 2.5-6 https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan
- Olsen SR, Sommers LE (1982) Phosphorus. In: Page AL (ed) Methods of soil analysis, Part 2 Chemical and microbiological properties, 2nd edn. American Society of Agronomy, Inc., Soil Science Society of America, Inc., Wisconsin, pp 403–430
- Papanatasis VP (2007) Land abandonment and old field dynamics in Greece. In: Cramer VA, Hobbs RJ (eds) Old fields: dynamics and restoration of abandoned farmland. Island Press, London, pp 225–246
- Perpiña Castillo C, Kavalov B, Diogom V, Jacobs C, Batista e Silva F, Lavalle C (2018) Agricultural land abandonment in the EU within 2015–2030. EUR - Scientific and Technical Research Reports, Science Areas. jrc113718
- Plieninger T, Hui C, Gaertner M, Huntsinger L (2014) The impact of land abandonment on species richness and abundance in the Mediterranean Basin: a meta-analysis. PLoS ONE 9(5):e98355. doi:https://doi. org/10.1371/journal.pone.0098355
- Prach K, Walker LR (2011) Four opportunities for studies of ecological succession. Trends Ecol Evol 26:119–123. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2010.12.007
- Quintana JR, Molina JA, Diéguez-Antón A, Valverde-Asenjo I (2021) Interannual climate variability determines the efficiency of functional recovery in dry Mediterranean abandoned vineyards. Land Degrad Dev 32:1883–1900. https://doi.org/10.1002/ldr.3843
- R Core Team (2022) R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL https://www.R-project.org/
- RStudio Team, RStudio (2022) RStudio: Integrated Development Environment for R. PBC, Boston, MA URL http://www.rstudio
- Raiesi F (2012a) Soil properties and C dynamics in abandoned and cultivated farmlands in a semi-arid ecosystem. Plant Soil 351:161–175. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-011-0941-5
- Raiesi F (2012b) Land abandonment effect on N mineralization and microbial biomass N in a semi-arid calcareous soil from Iran. J Arid Environ 76:80–87. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaridenv.2011.08.008
- Raiesi F, Salek-Gilani S (2018) The potential activity of soil extracellular enzymes as an indicator for ecological restoration of rangeland soils after agricultural abandonment. Appl Soil Ecol 126:140–147. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.apsoil.2018.02.022
- Rivas-Martínez S, Penas A, Díaz González TE, Cantó P, del Río S et al (2017) Biogeographic units of the Iberian Peninsula and Balearic Islands to district level. A concise synopsis. In: Loidi J (ed) The vegetation of the Iberian Peninsula. Plant and vegetation, vol 12. Springer, Cham., pp 131–188. https://doi. org/10.1007/978-3-319-54784-8_5
- Rivas-Martínez S, Penas A, Díaz TE, Fernández F (2011) Mapas de series, geoseries y geopermaseries de vegetación de España. Itinera Geobot 18:5–800
- Robinson SJB, van den Berg E, Meirelles GS, Ostle N (2015) Factors influencing early secondary succession and ecosystem carbon stocks in Brazilian Atlantic forest. Biodivers Conserv 24:2273–2291. DOI https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-015-0982-9

- Sala OE, Stuart Chapin FIII, Armesto JJ, Berlow E, Bloomfield J et al (2000) Global biodiversity scenarios for the year 2100. Science 287:1770–1774. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1126/science.287.5459.1770
- Sciubba L, Mazzon M, Cavani L, Baldi E, Toselli M et al(2021) Soil response to agricultural land abandonment: a case study of a vineyard in Northern Italy. Agronomy 2021, 11, 1841. https://doi.org/10.3390/ agronomy11091841
- Steffen W, Sanderson RA, Tyson PD, Jäger J, Matson PA et al (2004) Global change and the earth system: a planet under pressure. Global Change - The IGBP Series. Springer, Berlin Heidelberg New York, Series
- Tichý L (2002) JUICE, software for vegetation classification. J Veg Sci 13:451–453. https://doi. org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2002.tb02069.x
- Tichý L, Chytrý M (2006) Statistical determination of diagnostic species for site groups of unequal size. J Veg Sci 17:809–818. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1654-1103.2006.tb02504.x
- Tilman D (1990) Constraints and tradeoffs: toward a predictive theory of competition and succession. Oikos 58:3–15. https://doi.org/10.2307/3565355
- Valverde-Asenjo I, Diéguez-Antón A, Martín-Sanz JP, Molina JA, Quintana JR(2020) Soil and vegetation dynamics in a chronosequence of abandoned vineyards. Agriculture Ecosystems and Environment 301 (2020):107049. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2020.107049
- van der Maarel E (1979) Transformation of cover abundance values in phytosociology and its effects on community similarity. Vegetatio 39:97–114. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00052021
- Vaquero Perea C, Valverde-Asenjo I, Vázquez de la Cueva A, Martín-Sanz JP, Molina JA, Quintana JR (2020) Colonizing vegetation type drives evolution of organic matter in secondary succession in abandoned vineyards. Plant Ecol 221:1143–1158. DOI https://doi.org/10.1007/s11258-020-01069-2
- Vrahnakis M, Janišová M, Rūsiņa S, Török P, Venn S, Dengler J (2013) The European Dry Grassland Group (EDGG): stewarding Europe's most diverse habitat type. In: Baumbach H (ed) Steppenlebensr aume Europas – Gef ahrdung, Erhaltungsmaßnah-men und Schutz. Thüringer Ministerium für Landwirtschaft, Forsten, Umwelt und Naturschutz, Erfurt, pp 417–434
- Vesterdal L, Ritter E, Gundersen P (2002) Change in soil organic carbon following afforestation of former arable land. For Ecol Manage 169:137–147. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-1127(02)00304-3
- Vitousek PM, Matson PA, Van Cleve K (1989) Nitrogen availability and nitrification during succession: primary, secondary, and old-field seres. Plant Soil 115:229–239. http://www.jstor.org/stable/42937847
- Walkley A, Black IA (1934) An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil organic matter and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. Soil Sci 37:29–38
- Weissteiner CJ, Boschetti M, Böttcher K, Carrara P, Bordogna G, Brivio PA (2011) Spatial explicit assessment of rural land abandonment in the Mediterranean area. Glob Planet Change 79:20–36. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.gloplacha.2011.07.009
- Wills AJ, Cranfield RJ, Ward BG, Tunsell VL (2018) Cryptogam recolonization after wildfire: leaders and laggards in assemblages? Fire Ecol 14:65–84. doi: https://doi.org/10.4996/fireecology.140165084
- WRBI (2015) Reference base for soil resources 2014, update 2015. International soil classification system for naming soils and creating legends for soil maps. No. 106. FAO, Rome
- Wright JP, Fridley JD (2010) Biogeographic synthesis of secondary succession rates in eastern North America. J Biogeogr 37:1584–1596. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2699.2010.02298.x
- Zhang K, Cheng X, Dang H, Ye C, Zhang Q (2012) Soil nitrogen and denitrification potential as affected by land use and stand age following agricultural abandonment in a headwater catchment. Soil Use Manag 28:361–369. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-2743.2012.00420.x
- Zhou G, Zhou X, He Y, Shao J, Hu Z et al (2017b) Grazing intensity significantly affects belowground carbon and nitrogen cycling in grassland ecosystems: a meta-analysis. Glob Change Biol 23:1167–1179. https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.13431
- Zhou Z, Wang C, Jiang L, Luo Y (2017a) Trends in soil microbial communities during secondary succession. Soil Biol Biochem 115:92–99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soilbio.2017.08.014
- Zhu B, Li Z, Li P, Liu G, Xue S (2010) Soil erodibility, microbial biomass, and physical-chemical property changes during long-term natural vegetation restoration: a case study in the Loess Plateau, China. Ecol Res 25:531–541. DOI https://doi.org/10.1007/s11284-009-0683-5

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.