

1 **Title: Addition of multiple limiting resources reduces grassland diversity**

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**60 Summary:**

**61 Niche dimensionality provides a general theoretical explanation for biodiversity:  
62 more niches, defined by more limiting factors, allow for more ways species can  
63 coexist<sup>1</sup>. Because plant species compete for the same set of limiting resources, theory  
64 predicts that addition of a limiting resource eliminates potential trade-offs, reducing  
65 the number of species that can coexist<sup>2</sup>. Multiple nutrient limitation of plant  
66 production is common and therefore fertilization may reduce diversity by reducing  
67 the number or dimensionality of belowground limiting factors. At the same time  
68 nutrient addition, by increasing biomass, should ultimately shift competition from  
69 belowground nutrients towards a one-dimensional competitive tradeoff for light<sup>3</sup>.  
70 Here we show that plant species diversity decreased when a greater number of  
71 limiting nutrients were added across 45 grassland sites from a multi-continent  
72 experimental network<sup>4</sup>. The number of added nutrients predicted diversity loss,  
73 even after controlling for effects of plant biomass, and even where biomass  
74 production was not nutrient-limited. We found that elevated resource supply  
75 reduced niche dimensionality and diversity and increased both productivity<sup>5</sup> and  
76 compositional turnover. Our results point to the importance of understanding  
77 dimensionality in ecological systems that are undergoing diversity loss in response to  
78 multiple global change factors.**

**80 Text:**

**81** The search for the mechanisms underlying the coexistence of multiple species was inspired by  
**82** Darwin's observations of the problem of the "entangled bank", or how different checks on the  
**83** growth of individuals underlie the number of species found together<sup>6</sup>. One of the most general  
**84** theoretical explanations for this problem is that greater dimensionality, or number of non-  
**85** overlapping ecological niches, allows for the coexistence of a greater number of species<sup>1,7</sup>.  
**86** However, plant coexistence challenges this understanding: rather than occupying unique  
**87** resource niches, plants share and are limited by the same essential resources<sup>8</sup>. The coexistence of  
**88** plants competing for the same resources therefore requires stoichiometric and physiological  
**89** tradeoff differences for shared limiting resources<sup>2</sup>. Furthermore, plant resources are spatially  
**90** separated, with elemental nutrients (e.g., nitrogen, phosphorus, potassium) and water acquired  
**91** belowground and light aboveground. This suggests that two, non-independent resource-based  
**92** mechanisms could maintain plant diversity: multi-dimensional tradeoffs for belowground  
**93** limiting nutrients, juxtaposed with a one-dimensional tradeoff for light aboveground.

**94**  
**95** Resource competition theory predicts that addition of a limiting resource makes that resource  
**96** non-limiting, thereby eliminating a competitive tradeoff contributing to coexistence<sup>2</sup>. Because  
**97** some factor must ultimately limit growth, resource additions will lead to a reduction in the  
**98** number and a shift in the identity of growth-limiting factors. In the case of plants, addition of  
**99** multiple nutrients should reduce the dimensionality of belowground resource tradeoffs, increase  
**100** biomass production, and ultimately shift the prevailing form of resource competition towards a  
**101** single, aboveground limiting resource, light<sup>3,5</sup>. Support for this hypothesis has been demonstrated  
**102** in four grassland experiments. All found plant biomass production was limited by multiple  
**103** resources, and diversity decreased as a function of the number of belowground resources made  
**104** non-limiting<sup>5,9-11</sup>. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that multi-dimensional  
**105** tradeoffs for belowground resources, and light competition mediated by aboveground biomass

106 production, might jointly contribute to maintaining plant diversity in natural communities. While  
107 multiple limitation of primary producer communities is common<sup>12</sup>, a recent global study  
108 demonstrated substantial site-level variation in the number and identity of co-limiting resources,  
109 with ca. 25% of sites showing no evidence that biomass production was nutrient limited<sup>13</sup>. The  
110 question remains whether the dimensionality of nutrient resources might contribute to plant  
111 diversity independently of the presumed importance of indirect effects of biomass on diversity.  
112

113 Here we tested for loss of species diversity in response to multiple nutrient additions<sup>5</sup> using the  
114 Nutrient Network, a globally-distributed, nutrient addition experiment, replicated across  
115 grassland sites on six continents (NutNet; [www.nutnet.org](http://www.nutnet.org))<sup>4</sup>. We added factorial combinations of  
116 phosphorus (P), nitrogen (N), and potassium (K+ $\mu$ ; the K addition treatment included sulphur and  
117 a one-time addition of micronutrients; see Methods), with the aim of removing potential  
118 limitations from different combinations of the essential nutrient elements that most strongly  
119 affect plant growth in natural and managed systems worldwide<sup>13</sup>. Our treatments varied in the  
120 number of elemental resources they contained; hereafter, we use the term “number of added  
121 resources” (1, 2, or 3) to represent the *minimum* number of potentially limiting elemental  
122 nutrients added (see Methods).  
123

124 If competition for multiple belowground resources contributes to species coexistence, then  
125 diversity should decrease as a function of the number of resources added. Species diversity  
126 decreased as more resources were added, and this effect increased with duration of treatment  
127 (Fig. 1a; Extended Data Table 1). Greater number of added resources increased the annual rate of  
128 diversity loss, even after controlling for differences in experiment duration (Fig. 1b). We found a  
129 similar proportional loss of diversity with a greater number of added resources (using the log-  
130 ratio effect size of treatment divided by control diversity; Fig. 1b), meaning that in terms of the  
131 number of potential species lost, relative diversity losses and annual rate of diversity loss were  
132 similar. Sites differed in the size of their species pools, which ranged from 13 to 103 observed  
133 species over a 3-year period, and we found that the magnitude of diversity loss rate per added  
134 resource increased with local species pool size (Fig. 1c).  
135

136 We found that increasing the number of added resources increased live biomass (Fig. 2a), and  
137 decreased the proportion of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) transmitted through the  
138 canopy to the ground surface (Fig. 2b). Further, the amount of litter biomass, which can also  
139 contribute to light limitation and diversity loss<sup>14</sup> increased with the number of added resources  
140 (Fig. 2c). Importantly, despite the complex causal effects of changes in multiple resources on the  
141 relationship between diversity and biomass, the number of added resources remained a  
142 significant predictor of diversity loss, even after controlling for the potential contributing effects  
143 of species pool size, live biomass, total cover (a proxy for total plant abundance), light  
144 transmittance, and litter mass (Extended Data Tables 2, 3). If species coexist though tradeoffs in  
145 resource-ratio requirements, changes in belowground resource supply could cause changes in  
146 competitive dominance and lead to species exclusion<sup>2</sup>, independent of aboveground effects of  
147 biomass. In a subset of sites that did not show a biomass response to multiple nutrient addition,  
148 we nevertheless observed declines in diversity consistent with this theory (Fig. 3 a, b: open  
149 points, n=11), similar to sites where biomass production was multiple-resource limited (Fig. 3 a,  
150 b: filled points, n=34). Overall, 14 sites of 45 sites in this study showed some type of negative  
151 biomass response to N, P or K+ $\mu$  addition suggesting the potential for elevated nutrient

152 concentrations supply to cause negative physiological responses in species not adapted to high  
153 nutrient concentrations<sup>15</sup> or to large stoichiometric imbalances in resource supply<sup>16</sup>.

154  
155 Diversity loss increased only weakly with biomass increase in plots receiving all three resources,  
156 providing some support for indirect effects of biomass as a contributing, but not a sole,  
157 mechanism of diversity loss due to fertilisation (Fig. 3c). If species losses were most strongly  
158 associated with biomass increases, we would expect the greatest effects on both responses to be  
159 associated with the same nutrient addition treatment, but this was true for only 22 of 45 cases  
160 (Chi-square,  $p < 0.0001$ ). The loss of diversity was not driven by the addition of any single added  
161 resource (e.g., N); greatest diversity loss occurred with the addition of a combination of two or  
162 more resources in 31 of 45 cases. These findings further highlight that biomass production and  
163 diversity can be controlled differently by multiple resources. Overall, these results support our  
164 conclusion that resource niche dimensionality can contribute to species diversity independently  
165 of indirect effects mediated by biomass production.

166  
167 For resource dimensionality to contribute to species coexistence, species must trade off their  
168 competitive abilities for different limiting resources, and changes in resource supply ratios  
169 should drive species compositional turnover<sup>2</sup>. We found that a greater number of added resources  
170 increased the compositional divergence from control plots (Fig. 4a). Plots receiving a single  
171 resource treatment (N, P and  $K_{+μ}$  treatments) diverged as much from each other as they did on  
172 average from the control plots (Fig. 4b), consistent with different species trading off competitive  
173 abilities for different resources<sup>2</sup>. We found that greater diversity loss was weakly associated with  
174 greater community dissimilarity when all three resources were added together (Fig. 4c),  
175 suggesting that resource addition caused changes in community composition that were not  
176 always associated with diversity loss. Both composition and diversity of communities contribute  
177 to ecosystem functioning, and many of the proposed mechanisms of the effect of species  
178 diversity on ecosystem function are resource-based<sup>17</sup>. Additionally, nutrient enrichment impacts  
179 some groups of species more than others (e.g., a loss of natives in favor of exotic grasses<sup>18</sup>).  
180 Because changes in resource supply led to communities of fewer species and of different  
181 compositions, we expect changes in resources, acting through diversity loss, to have both direct  
182 and indirect effects on ecosystem functions<sup>19</sup>.

183  
184 While our results are consistent with predictions of the resource niche dimension hypothesis,  
185 they are also likely conservative. Our experimental design, a factorial manipulation of three  
186 resource treatments, represents a lower-bound estimate of the dimensionality of nutrient  
187 resources because our  $K_{+μ}$  treatment included sulphur and up to 10 other macro- and micro-  
188 nutrients, of which more than one may have been limiting<sup>13</sup>. Multiple chemical forms of a  
189 limiting nutrient can also contribute to species diversity<sup>20</sup>, further expanding potential resource  
190 dimensionality. Stronger tests of the role of multiple resource competition for structuring species  
191 coexistence require physiological studies quantifying species-specific functional traits and  
192 tradeoffs<sup>21</sup>, and testing whether species respond to resource treatments similarly in different  
193 environments. Deeper mechanistic insight can also be gained by asking how resource-dependent  
194 diversity patterns and mechanisms change across scales (e.g., from local to regional) in response  
195 to global change drivers such as nutrient pollution<sup>22</sup>. Our results point to, but do not distinguish  
196 among, the presumed resource competition mechanisms<sup>2</sup> that underlie the resource dimension  
197 hypothesis.

198

199 We found that greater diversity loss was associated with sites with soil P, K, pH and % sand, but  
200 not with soil N, or with latitude, or mean annual precipitation (Extended Data Table 4),  
201 suggesting that variation in soil properties may influence the degree to which communities  
202 respond to changes in resource availability<sup>23</sup>. We did not test or control for other potential  
203 limiting factors such as herbivory or water, which can interact with nutrients in complex ways,  
204 and themselves contribute to species coexistence. For example, changes in nutrient availability  
205 affect photosynthetic tissue quantity and quality, and may alter the pattern and intensity of  
206 herbivory<sup>24</sup>, and the level of soil water depletion through transpiration losses. Our multi-year  
207 experimental results may still under-estimate nutrient effects when considering that global  
208 eutrophication represents a chronic and cumulative environmental change over many decades.  
209 Estimating effective upper bounds on ecologically relevant resource dimensionality will depend  
210 on the degree to which multiple limiting factors covary, how they change in time and space, and  
211 how multiple limiting factors interact with each other in promoting coexistence. Global change is  
212 driving environmental conditions beyond multiple planetary boundaries<sup>25</sup>, and changing the  
213 limiting factors that structure species diversity<sup>26</sup>. Understanding the mechanisms that underlie  
214 diversity loss caused by multiple global change factors is necessary to develop effective  
215 management strategies for restoring and preserving Earth's biodiversity.

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273 **Supplementary Information** is linked to the online version of the paper at  
274 [www.nature.com/nature](http://www.nature.com/nature).

275  
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288  
289 **Author Contributions:**

290 WSH analysed the data and wrote the paper with contributions and input from all authors. LS,  
291 EML and JF contributed to data analysis. WSH, EWS and ETB developed and framed the  
292 research questions. WSH, EWS, ETB and EML are Nutrient Network coordinators. All authors  
293 collected data used in this analysis. Author contribution matrix provided as Table S2.

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297 The authors have not competing financial interests.

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300

301 **Figure Legends:**

302

303

304 **Figure 1. Biodiversity and number of resources.**

305 **a**, Loss of species diversity with greater number of added resources (effective number of equally  
306 abundant species:  $ESN_{PIE}$ ); this effect increased with years of treatment 1-8 (Extended Data  
307 Table 1); year 0 shows pre-treatment diversity. Bold lines show overall mean responses; y-axis is  
308 log-transformed. **b**, Greater number of added resources increased the mean rates of diversity loss  
309 per year (filled points;  $F_{1,134}=24.8$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ), and the proportional loss of species relative to the  
310 controls, shown as the effect size (open points;  $F_{1,134}=46.2$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ). **c**, Rate of diversity loss  
311 per added resource (nres) was associated with greater total site species number (log),  $R^2=0.25$ ,  
312  $P=0.0004$ ,  $n=45$ ). (mean  $\pm$  95% c.i.).

313

314

315 **Figure 2. Biomass and light.**

316 **a**, The rate of live biomass change per year increased with an increasing number of added  
317 resources ( $F_{1,1031}=55.0$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ). **b**, The proportion of photosynthetically active radiation  
318 (PAR) reaching the ground surface decreased with a greater number of added resources,  
319 expressed as annual rate of change ( $F_{1,782}=62.4$ ,  $P<0.0001$ ). **c**, The mean rate of litter (dead  
320 biomass) change per year increased with the number of added resources ( $F_{1,783}=4.37$ ,  $P=0.037$ ).  
321 (mean  $\pm$  95% c.i.).

322

323

324 **Figure 3. Multiple resource limitation.**

325 **a**, Increased number of added resources resulted in positive and increasing biomass at sites  
326 showing multiple resource limitation (filled points); sites not limited by multiple resources  
327 tended to show negative biomass responses with resource addition (open points). **b**, Increased  
328 number of added resources drove similar diversity loss at sites where biomass production was  
329 limited by multiple resources (filled points) and at sites where it was not (open points). **c**,  
330 Negative relationship between the effect of addition of three resources on biomass and diversity  
331 (1-tail test for negative relationship,  $R^2=0.11$ ,  $P=0.012$ ,  $n=45$ ). (mean  $\pm$  s.e.)

332

333

334 **Figure 4. Community composition.**

335 **a**, Community composition diverged from control plots with greater number of added resources  
336 (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity index). Resource addition caused greater dissimilarity of community  
337 composition relative to mean pre-treatment dissimilarity, indicated by grey stars. **b**, Addition of  
338 single nutrient additions of N, P or  $K_{+p}$  resulted in communities that diverged as much from each  
339 other as they did on average from the control plots. Pre-treatment values indicated by grey stars.  
340 **c**, Negative relationship between the effect of addition of three resources on community  
341 dissimilarity relative to controls and diversity (1-tail test for negative relationship,  $R^2=0.10$ ,  
342  $P=0.019$ ,  $n=45$ ). (mean  $\pm$  95% c.i.).

343

**Methods:**

**Experiment Design:** The Nutrient Network (NutNet) is a collaborative, distributed experimental network<sup>4</sup>. Sites are located across herbaceous terrestrial systems on six continents. Vegetation types represented include grasslands, savannas and meadows and occur across a wide range of climate and environmental factors (Table S1). At the 45 sites (on five continents) with appropriate experimental data for these analyses, one year of pre-treatment (year 0) data were collected followed by at least 3 years and up to 8 years of treatment data. Individual site experiments share identical design and sampling protocols, with minor site-specific differences in terms of replication and treatment duration (Table S1). We applied factorial combinations of nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium plus micronutrients, designated here as the “K+ $\mu$ ” treatment, giving eight treatment combinations including the control with no added resources. N was applied annually at 10 g N m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as time-release urea. Ammonium nitrate was used in 2007 at some sites before switching to urea due to restricted availability of ammonium nitrate; we found no differences in the short-term effects of alternative N sources in a separate experiment at four sites<sup>18</sup>. P was applied at 10 g P m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as triple-super phosphate, which also included Ca at 8.1 g Ca m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. The K+ $\mu$  treatment added a mix of K and S (10 g K m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> and 3.9 g S m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> as potassium sulphate) and micronutrients (100 g m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> of a mixture composed of 6% Ca, 3% Mg, 12% S, 0.1% B, 1% Cu, 17% Fe, 2.5% Mn, 0.05% Mo, and 1% Zn). Micronutrients were only applied during the first treatment year to minimise potential for toxic metal accumulation. Plots were 5 m x 5 m and randomised within 1 to 6 blocks (Table S1), with all eight treatment combinations occurring once per block. Sampling occurred at approximately peak biomass times for each site.

**Response Measurements:**

Biodiversity estimates are scale-dependent<sup>27</sup>, and increased resource availability can alter diversity-scaling relationships by changing the size of species pools and thus introduce differences in the coverage of sampling between treatments, due to larger and fewer individuals per area sampled<sup>28</sup>, and contribute to the loss of rarer species. We calculated species diversity as the effective species number, which estimates the probability of interspecific-encounter if all species are equally abundant (ESN<sub>PIE</sub>). ESN<sub>PIE</sub> has been shown to be less sensitive to scaling issues than other metrics<sup>22</sup>, and is representative of the maximum slope of the species-area accumulation function. We used ESN<sub>PIE</sub> because NutNet sites vary in their species pools and therefore their species accumulation curves will differ, which creates a challenge to compare species diversity when sampled at a fixed area<sup>22</sup>. ESN<sub>PIE</sub> has been shown to be relatively insensitive to such sampling area issues because it essentially measures the maximum change in species number as a function of sampling area (i.e., the slope at the x-intercept of the species accumulation curve). Because the resource dimension hypothesis and underlying resource ratio theory assume that species trade off for different limiting factors, predictions for diversity change describe changes in competitive dominance; ESN<sub>PIE</sub> captures these predicted changes in dominance better than simple measurements of local species extinction (i.e. richness loss). We used the aggregate number of species observed at a site as an estimate of the asymptote of the species accumulation function, and of the regional species pool. We also used simply the number of species (i.e., richness) and found similar results as those using ESN<sub>PIE</sub> (Extended Data Table 1).

390 We measured species diversity annually by estimating the % cover of each plant species within a  
 391 1 m x 1 m fixed location in each plot; the total cover typically summed to greater than 100% due  
 392 to multiple canopy layers. We quantified species diversity as the probability of interspecific  
 393 encounter (PIE), or effective species number ( $ESN_{PIE}$ ), assuming species relative abundances are  
 394 equal:  
 395

$$ESN_{PIE} = \frac{1}{\sum_i^s p_i^2} \quad \text{eq. 1}$$

396  
 397 where  $p_i$  is the proportion of species  $i$  in a community of size  $s$ ;  $ESN_{PIE}$  is derived from the  
 398 inverse of Simpson's diversity index<sup>22</sup>.  
 399

400  
 401 We measured aboveground live biomass by clipping two 1 m x 10 cm strip of vegetation in each  
 402 plot, sorting the sampled tissue to live (current year's production) and dead (previous years'  
 403 production) fractions, drying at 60 C for 48 hours and weighing. At most sites,  
 404 photosynthetically active radiation PAR was measured above the plant canopy and at the ground  
 405 surface and the proportion of transmitted light calculated.  
 406

407 We categorised plant communities at sites as multiple-resource limited if biomass responded  
 408 positively to fertilisation with combinations of different nutrients. Specifically, we designated  
 409 sites as "multiple-resource limited" if biomass increased with the independent addition of  
 410 different resources or if biomass responded synergistically to two or more added resources (i.e.,  
 411 the response to one nutrient was dependent on the level of another and their combined effect was  
 412 super-additive)<sup>11</sup>. Sites that showed no response or negative biomass response or responded  
 413 positively to only one resource we categorised as not multiple-resource limited. Thirty-four of  
 414 the 45 sites showed increased biomass in response to multiple added resources; eight did not  
 415 respond positively to resource addition, and three responded positively to a single resource (i.e.,  
 416 single resource limited<sup>11</sup>).  
 417

418 **Statistical Analysis:** All analyses used R version 3.2.2. We used linear mixed-effects models (R  
 419 package lme) to test the interaction of number of added resources and the number of treatment  
 420 years, on diversity ( $ESN_{PIE}$ ) and richness. Site and block were modeled as nested random effects.  
 421 We included in the model an autocorrelation structure, a first-order autoregressive model  
 422 (AR(1)), where observations are expected to be correlated from one year to the next, and found a  
 423 substantial improvement in model fit when we compared this model to a model with no  
 424 autocorrelation structure (lower AIC =  $\Delta$  608 and likelihood ratio tests, L.Ratio = 610,  $p <$   
 425  $0.0001$ )<sup>29</sup>. Treatment effects increased in magnitude with time (significantly negative interaction  
 426 between number of added resources and year; SI Table 2). To allow standardised comparison of  
 427 sites that differed in the year they were established and in duration of nutrient addition, we used  
 428 two approaches to quantify the changes in species diversity. First, we calculated the annual rate  
 429 of change of our response variables to standardise site responses. Second, for analyses that  
 430 required an effect size, calculated as the log ratio of the treatment response divided by the  
 431 control, we used the most recent year of treatment data, which ranged from 3 to 7 years of annual  
 432 nutrient application duration (SI Table 1). Log ratio effect size estimates would not have been  
 433 possible using the rate of change estimates, which can take zero or negative values. Log ratio

434 effect sizes tend to be normally distributed, centre zero effects (control levels) at zero log ratios,  
435 and scale responses to make proportional effects directly comparable between sites<sup>30</sup>.

436  
437 We used linear mixed-effects models (R package lme) to test the effects of number of treatment  
438 years, site richness, log live biomass, log dead biomass, PAR, total species cover, and the  
439 number of added resources on diversity ( $ESN_{pie}$ ), with plot nested in block nested in site as  
440 random effects. Models using dead biomass and PAR used the subset of 30 sites for which we  
441 had data for these variables. We calculated mean values at each site for the annual rate of  
442 diversity loss and diversity effect size, and tested for linear relationships between these variables  
443 and the number of added resources using regression with site as a block term. We used step-wise  
444 linear regression and AIC criteria to test for relationships of loss of diversity (from addition of  
445 three resources) with latitude, longitude, and environmental covariates of mean annual  
446 precipitation, and soil N, P, K, pH, % clay, and % sand. Plant community composition changes  
447 were quantified using Bray-Curtis multivariate distances (R package vegan).

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#### 450 **Methods' References:**

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#### 461 **Extended Data Table Legends:**

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463 **Extended Data Table 1. The effects of nutrient addition on diversity loss and richness loss**  
464 **increase with time.** Linear mixed-effects model of the effects of number of treatment years  
465 (ARIMA type-1 autocorrelation) and the number of added resources on diversity ( $\log ESN_{pie}$ )  
466 and richness, with plot nested in block, nested in year, nested in site, as random effects, using all  
467 45 sites. There was a significant, negative interaction between the number of added resources  
468 (nres) and year of treatment (year).

469

470 **Extended Data Table 2. The number of added resources predicts diversity loss after**  
471 **controlling for other variables.** Linear mixed-effects model of the effects of number of  
472 treatment years, site richness, log live biomass, total species cover, and the number of added  
473 resources on diversity ( $ESN_{pie}$ ), with plot nested in block nested in site as random effects, using  
474 all 45 sites and data from the maximum treatment year for each site. Delta AIC between model  
475 with number of added resources and model without was 33, log-likelihood ratio 35.0,  $p < 0.0001$ .

476

477 **Extended Data Table 3. The number of added resources is an important predictor even**  
478 **after controlling for other variables, for sites that had light and litter data.** Linear mixed-  
479 effects model of the effects of number of treatment years, site richness, log live biomass, log

480 dead biomass, PAR, total species cover, and the number of added resources on diversity  
481 ( $ESN_{pie}$ ), with plot nested in block nested in site as random effects, using data from the  
482 maximum treatment year for each site, and the subset of 32 sites for which there was dead  
483 biomass and PAR data. Delta AIC between model with number of added resources and model  
484 without was 15, log-likelihood ratio 15.6,  $p < 0.0001$ .

485

486 **Extended Data Table 4. Diversity loss due to addition of nutrients associated with soil**  
487 **properties.** Stepwise multiple regression (backward with AIC criteria for model comparisons)  
488 retained soil P, K, pH, and % sand as predictors of diversity loss from the addition of three  
489 resources, for the 30 sites with soil analysis data (excluding one site for extreme value of P). The  
490 variables latitude, longitude, mean annual precipitation, and soil % N were not retained. Overall  
491 model is significant ( $r^2 = 0.375$ ,  $F_{4, 25} = 3.75$ ,  $p = 0.016$ ).