

1 Title: The number of phenology patterns, not species richness, affects the greening season  
2 length of freely assembled plant communities

3 Running title: Complementarity and greening season

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25

26 Abstract

27 Questions: Plant greening phenology is a key response trait that drives numerous  
28 ecosystem functions such as carbon storage and flowering. Plant communities with a  
29 diversity of phenology responses could show a longer greening season due to a more  
30 complete occupation of the temporal window available for growth. However, it is unclear  
31 how species composition and richness affect the phenology of local plant communities.

32 Location: This study was conducted in wetland landscapes of the St. Lawrence River in  
33 the province of Quebec, Canada (46.07° N; -73.17° W).

34 Methods: We used close-range digital imagery to monitor the greening phenology and  
35 species richness of 20 herbaceous plant communities from 2013 to 2016. We quantified  
36 the number of greening phenology patterns observed each year within each plant  
37 community using singular value decomposition of close-range image time-series.

38 Results: The number of plant species within plant communities was independent of the  
39 number of phenology patterns, or the length of the greening season. However, the number

40 of phenology patterns correlated positively to the greening season length in all four years  
41 of monitoring.

42 Conclusions: The relationship between the number of phenology patterns and the  
43 greening season length suggests a complementary use of the temporal window available  
44 for growth within plant communities. Species richness was a poor indicator of the  
45 diversity of phenology responses in wet meadow communities. The absence of a positive  
46 relationship between the number of plant species and the diversity of greening phenology  
47 patterns, or the length of the greening season, suggests that other descriptors of plant  
48 communities are of importance. Species richness is more often than not a weak predictor  
49 of the functioning of local plant communities in the wild.

50

51 Key words: singular value decomposition, plant phenology, wetlands, timelapse imagery,  
52 species richness, functional diversity, remote sensing, biodiversity-ecosystem function  
53 relationship

54

55 Introduction

56 The role of biodiversity on the functioning of ecosystems is a cornerstone of the  
57 conservation narrative. In vegetation sciences, biodiversity experiments are conducted by  
58 manipulating the species richness of plant communities subjected to similar climatic and  
59 edaphic conditions. (e.g., Hector et al., 1999; Tilman et al. 2001; Weisser et al. 2017).

60 The underlying hypothesis of biodiversity experiments is that facilitation and functional

61 complementarity among species in response to environmental variations determine the  
62 functioning of a plant community (Isbell et al., 2018; Wagg et al., 2017).

63 Greening phenology is attracting increasing attention in biodiversity research (e.g., Barry  
64 et al., 2019; Kraft et al., 2014; Oehri et al., 2017; Wolkovich et al., 2014). A practical  
65 definition of greening phenology for seasonal plants is the timing of green-on and green-  
66 off dates, which together determine the greening season length. Plant phenology data are  
67 now widely available at multiple observation scales, ranging from satellite imagery  
68 products (Bórnez et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019) to close-range networks of  
69 ground cameras (Brown et al., 2016; Mariani et al., 2012; Rheault et al., 2020;  
70 Richardson, 2019). While the various monitoring approaches of greening phenology tend  
71 to corroborate when aggregated at a large spatial grain (Richardson et al., 2018; Watson  
72 et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018), it is still unclear how species composition and richness  
73 drive the phenology of local plant communities.

74 Plant species richness could affect the greening season length due to a greater likelihood  
75 of finding species with a longer greening season in species-rich communities, or with  
76 complementary use of resources, leading to a more complete filling of the temporal  
77 window available for growth (Lasky et al., 2016; Rathcke and Lacey, 1985; Rheault et  
78 al., 2015; Schofield et al., 2018). Two recent studies reported that greening season length  
79 increases with increasing habitat heterogeneity and species richness of vascular plants in  
80 1 km<sup>2</sup> landscapes (Oehri et al., 2017; Oehri et al., 2020). Similarly, close-range  
81 monitoring of 118 wetland plant communities by Rheault et al. (2021), over four  
82 consecutive years, revealed strong temporal and spatial complementarity effects of  
83 species assemblages on the greening season length at the landscape scale. Yet, the latter

84 study showed that plant species richness *per se* did not influence the greening season of  
85 local communities within landscapes (Rheault et al., 2021). Other studies conducted in  
86 unmanaged ecosystems also did not systematically find a relationship between species  
87 richness and plant phenology (Lemmens et al., 2008, Rheault et al., 2015, Rheault et al.,  
88 2021), suggesting that other biodiversity facets could also be at play.

89 The above studies and results propose that the complementarity of plant phenology  
90 patterns over space and time could be a key determinant of the greening season length of  
91 a community, which may or may not be associated with species richness *per se*. A  
92 phenology pattern in this context is the unique green-on and -off seasonal signature of  
93 plants experiencing the same environmental forcing (e.g., Rathcke and Lacey, 1985). In  
94 the present study, we monitored the greening season length of 20 wetland plant  
95 communities over four consecutive years to: i) quantify the number of greening  
96 phenology patterns within plant communities using time-lapse photography and ii)  
97 evaluate if the number of greening phenology patterns correlates positively to species  
98 richness, and which of the two better explain the greening season length. We  
99 hypothesized that species richness should correlate positively to the greening season  
100 length of a plant community by supporting a broader range of greening phenology  
101 patterns. We will test the above hypothesis at the observation level of natural plant  
102 communities using an innovative approach based on timelapse photography.

103 Methods

104 Study site

105 We used data from one ecosystem of the SAuVER network (réseau de Suivi Automatisé  
106 de la Végétation des Écosystèmes Riverains), which monitors the phenology and species  
107 richness of wetland plant communities using timelapse cameras (Rheault et al., 2021).

108 The dataset covered four years of greening phenology (2013 to 2016) on 20 herbaceous  
109 plant communities in the area managed by the Société de Conservation, d'Interprétation  
110 et de Recherches de Berthier et ses Îles (Quebec, Canada; 46.07°N; 73.17° W, Figure 1).

111 The area is located within the biosphere reserve of Lake Saint-Pierre.

112 The littoral of Lake Saint-Pierre is flooded from April until May each year, with strong  
113 inter-annual variations in both amplitude and duration. Mean annual temperatures for the  
114 2013-2016 period were 5.9°C, 4.5°C, 4.3°C, 6.3°C and total annual precipitation was  
115 919.4 mm, 899.7 mm, 599.2 and 612.3 respectively. We assessed edaphic conditions in  
116 August 2015 by aggregating four soil samples from each plant community. Mean ( $\pm$  1  
117 SD) soil pH was 5.48 ( $\pm$  0.23), soil moisture was 39.42% ( $\pm$  13.02) and water table depth  
118 was 52.69 cm ( $\pm$  35.82) (supplementary information in Rheault et al., 2021).

119 All plant communities were located within an area of approximately 1 km<sup>2</sup> (Figure 1).

120 We selected communities that represent the gradient of plant species composition and  
121 richness observed within the area. We paired species-rich plant communities with nearby  
122 species-poor, dominated, plant communities to minimize the influence of local edaphic  
123 conditions on species richness (Rheault et al., 2021). The floristic composition was  
124 characteristic of wet meadow and high-marsh wetlands along the St.-Lawrence River.

125 Timelapse monitoring

126 We used timelapse cameras (Timelapse PRO, Wingscape, Alabaster, USA) to track  
127 changes in species richness and plant greening phenology (Rheault et al., 2021). At the  
128 margin of each plant community, we mounted a camera on a metal post at a height of 1.5  
129 m. The camera pointed at the vegetation with an angle of approximately 45° below the  
130 horizon and photographed an area of approximately 16 m<sup>2</sup>. We took three images per day  
131 (9h, 12h and 15h) and monitored plant communities from April until December of each  
132 year (2013 to 2016). All images were at a resolution of 1944 x 2592 pixels and stored in  
133 JPEG format.

#### 134 Species richness

135 We quantified species richness of each plant community through a visual assessment of  
136 four pictures taken on the 15<sup>th</sup> of June, July, August and September of each year. We  
137 used species richness of the sun-exposed vegetation layer, as it was more representative  
138 of the camera view field. We validated the taxonomic identity of the species observed  
139 within each image using exhaustive field surveys conducted once a year in each plot. The  
140 taxonomy follows VASCAN (Brouillet et al., 2022). We previously demonstrated the  
141 effectiveness of this approach at capturing the species richness gradient of these plant  
142 communities (see Rheault et al., 2015).

#### 143 Community phenology

144 We monitored the greening phenology of all the vegetation located in 4 x 4 m plots using  
145 timelapse cameras. We used the protocol of the SAuVER network to determine the  
146 greening season length of each plant community each year (Rheault et al., 2021). Out of  
147 the 80 natural plant communities monitored (20 communities over four years), we could

148 not use the information from 10 of those because of camera displacement or  
149 malfunctioning issues resulting in the loss of numerous pictures and difference in time-  
150 series length. First, we quantified the average green chromatic coordinate index ( $G_{cc}$ ) of  
151 image pixels using the following equation:

$$152 \quad G_{cc} = \frac{G}{R+G+B} , \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

153 where R, G and B represents the digital numbers in red, green and blue channels  
154 extracted using the raster package (Hijman,2020; Sonnentag et al., 2012). We resized  
155 each image to 194 x 259 cells by averaging the local  $G_{cc}$  values using the ‘aggregate’  
156 function in base R. Since the field of view of each camera was approximately 16 m<sup>2</sup>, each  
157 resized cell represented an area of approximately 3 cm<sup>2</sup>. We then averaged the  $G_{cc}$  values  
158 across all cells within each image to monitor the greening season phenology of the whole  
159 plant community. We filtered  $G_{cc}$  time-series to reduce noise using the “medianFilter”  
160 function from the FBN package and rescaled values on the 0-1 interval (Andronache and  
161 Agnelli, 2012). We fitted a smoothing spline on each rescaled time-series using the  
162 “gam” function from the mgcv package to reveal the seasonal trend of  $G_{cc}$  values (Wood,  
163 2017). Green-up and green-down dates were found when rescaled  $G_{cc}$  values increased  
164 above or decreased below a threshold value of 50% respectively (White et al., 1997). We  
165 defined the greening season length of each plant community as the number of days  
166 elapsed between green-up and green-down dates (for more details, see Rheault et al.,  
167 2021).

168

169 Number of phenology patterns within plant communities

170 We defined a greening phenology pattern as cells of the plant community images that  
171 follow similar trajectories of G<sub>cc</sub> values over the season. For example, if the greening  
172 phenology pattern of plants on the left of the image differs from those on the right (e.g.,  
173 because they represent different species assemblages), then the community presents two  
174 phenology patterns. We note that cells of the image that are nonadjacent may share the  
175 same phenology pattern. We performed image processing and time-series analyses under  
176 the R programming environment (R Core Team, 2018).

177 Greening phenology patterns are “hidden factors” within the temporal dynamics of a  
178 plant community. Singular values decomposition (SVD) is a method of ordination that  
179 effectively finds such hidden factors in a high-dimensional space, where the number of  
180 singular values explaining a certain amount of the variation correlates positively with the  
181 number of distinct hidden factors (Ravi Kanth et al., 1998). In our study, the number of  
182 singular values is used as an index of the number of distinct greening phenology patterns  
183 in a community. The approach has been previously applied to timelapse photography and  
184 is described in details elsewhere (Proulx et al., 2009).

185 We performed the SVD analysis on the resized images of G<sub>cc</sub> greenness values stacked  
186 over the growing season. Thus, each community was represented by a spatial vector of  
187 194 x 259 G<sub>cc</sub> values monitored over 154 days (June 15<sup>th</sup> to November 15<sup>th</sup>) and 462  
188 pictures (three pictures per day) each year. We then extracted the singular values of each  
189 of these matrices of 462 rows by 50,246 columns (194 x 259 cells). We retained the  
190 number of singular values that explained 30% of spatio-temporal variance of G<sub>cc</sub> values  
191 (Proulx et al., 2009).

192 In the context of our study, the SVD analysis asks the following question: How many  
193 greening patterns are present in an image time-series of  $G_{cc}$  values? To answer this  
194 question, the percentage of explained variation must be fixed so that the number of  
195 greening patterns can vary among communities (Appendix S2). If the percentage is too  
196 small (e.g.,  $< 20\%$ ), only a few singular values are retained and we lose discriminatory  
197 power. Conversely, if the percentage is too high (e.g.,  $> 50\%$ ), noisy greening patterns are  
198 extracted instead of deterministic ones and, again, we lose discriminatory power (Proulx  
199 et al., 2009). Thus, we used the number of retained singular values at the 30% cutoff as  
200 an index of the number of greening phenology patterns observed on each time series. The  
201 remaining 70% is considered as noise that can be attributed to vegetation movement,  
202 wind, sun position, shadow effects, and so on. Using cutoff values of 40% or 50% (i.e.,  
203 considering 60% or 50% noise) did not qualitatively change the conclusion. We  
204 performed SVD analyses with the “svd” function in R (R Core Team, 2018).

205 We also assembled synthetic plant communities to demonstrate that any relationship  
206 between the number of phenology patterns and the greening season length is not an  
207 artifact of the SVD method. To do so, we used the  $G_{cc}$  time series of the 20 plant  
208 communities monitored in 2015 as our pool of greening phenology patterns. We then  
209 simulated 100  $G_{cc}$  matrices of 194 x 259 cells and randomly assigned (with replacement)  
210 between 1 and 20 greening phenology patterns to these matrices using the “sample”  
211 function within R. We therefore created 100 synthetic plant communities consisting of a  
212 combination of unique greening phenology patterns varying between 1 and 20. We  
213 performed SVD analysis on each of the 100 synthetic communities using the same  
214 procedure described above for natural communities.

215

216 Statistical analysis

217 We used synthetic communities as a benchmark to validate that the SVD analysis  
218 effectively captured the diversity of greening phenology patterns simulated, and that the  
219 number of extracted phenology patterns did not artificially correlate with the season  
220 length. We first inspected the relationship between the number of singular values  
221 extracted through SVD analysis and the number of simulated phenology patterns in  
222 synthetic communities. We also inspected the relationship between the number of  
223 singular values and the greening season length.

224 We then evaluated the independent contribution of plant species richness and diversity of  
225 phenology patterns (i.e., number of singular values) on the greening season length of  
226 natural communities. We inspected the following three bivariate relationships, with year  
227 as a random effect: i) species richness (explanatory variable) vs number of greening  
228 phenology patterns (response variable), ii) species richness (explanatory variable) vs  
229 greening season length (response variable), iii) number of greening phenology patterns  
230 (explanatory variable) vs greening season length (response variable). We assessed all the  
231 above relationships using linear regression models fitted with the “lmer” function from  
232 the lme4 package (Bates et al., 2015). For each model, we calculated the marginal and  
233 conditional  $R^2$ , representing the variance explained by fixed factors and the variance  
234 explained by both fixed and random factors, respectively, using the R Package  
235 “performance” (Lüdtke et al., 2020).

236

237 Results

238 Species richness varied from 2 to 11 species, and the greening season length from 81 to  
239 148 days. We identified 46 plant species in total over the whole study period (see  
240 Appendix S1 in Supplementary information). The most dominant species was *Phalaris*  
241 *arundinacea* (reed canarygrass), which is an exotic invasive plant in this system. Other  
242 abundant species were *Calamagrostis canadensis* (bluejoint reedgrass, native), *Onoclea*  
243 *sensibilis* (sensitive fern, exotic), *Lythrum salicaria* (purple loosestrife, exotic), *Sagittaria*  
244 *latifolia* (broad-leaved arrowhead, native), *Sparganium eurycarpum* (broad-fruited  
245 burred, native) and *Eutrochium maculatum* (spotted Joe Pye weed, native), which  
246 characterize wet meadows. Rare species in this system included the native *Cuscuta*  
247 *gronovii*, *Cicuta bulbifera*, *Sium suave*, *Stellaria longifolia*, *Dulichium arundinaceum*  
248 and *Triadenum fraseri*, which are more representative of freshwater marshes (Appendix  
249 S3).

250 We simulated 100 synthetic plant communities randomly combining between 1 to 20  
251 different phenology patterns. The greening season length of these communities varied  
252 from 100 to 145 days (Figure 2). We found a strong relationship between the number of  
253 singular values extracted through SVD analysis and the number of simulated phenology  
254 patterns (Figure 1a;  $R^2 = 0.96$ , slope = 4.39,  $t = 51.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). The slope of the model  
255 indicates that SVD analysis underestimated the number of phenology patterns by a factor  
256 of four, although the correlation is overall strong. As expected, we did not find any  
257 relationship between the number of singular values and the greening season length  
258 (Figure 1b;  $R^2 = 0.03$ , slope = 0.88,  $t = 0.73$ ,  $p = 0.42$ ).

259 We did not find any relationship between plant species richness and the number of  
260 singular values (i.e., number of greening phenology patterns; Figure 3a; marginal  $R^2 <$   
261  $0.01$ , overall slope =  $-0.08$ ), or between plant species richness and greening season length  
262 (Figure 3b; marginal  $R^2 = 0.04$ , overall slope =  $-1.31$ ). However, we did find a positive  
263 relationship between the greening season length and the number of greening phenology  
264 patterns within freely assembled plant communities of the SAuVER network (Figure 3c;  
265 marginal  $R^2 = 0.21$ , overall slope =  $1.30$ ). We observed the latter relationship in each of  
266 the four years (Figure 3c).

267

## 268 Discussion

269 We showed that increasing the number of phenology patterns prolongs the greening  
270 season of wetland plant communities in the wild. We observed the relationship between  
271 the number of greening phenology patterns and season length in each of the four years of  
272 monitoring. In contrast, plant species richness did not affect the number of phenology  
273 patterns, nor the season length. These results support the prediction that plant  
274 communities with a higher number of phenology patterns show a longer greening season  
275 due to a more complete occupation of the temporal window available for growth. This  
276 temporal window also changes from one season to the next because of natural variability  
277 in environmental conditions, perhaps explaining the different slopes observed across  
278 years. However, species richness was not the driver of this temporal complementarity  
279 among phenology patterns within a plant community, suggesting that other coexistence  
280 processes are at work.

281 The number of greening phenology patterns in each plant community should mirror the  
282 functional response of species to both their biotic and abiotic contexts (e.g.: O'Connell et  
283 al., 2019; Dobbert et al., 2021). If species richness is the mechanism that lengthens the  
284 greening season of plant communities through temporal complementarity (e.g., Rheault et  
285 al., 2015), then richness should correlate to the number of phenology patterns.

286 Alternatively, species richness may correlate to the greening season length of plant  
287 communities for reasons that are unrelated to temporal complementarity in phenology,  
288 such as the sampling effect; i.e., the probability of finding species with a long greening  
289 period increases with increasing species richness (Hector et al., 2002, Tilman et al.,  
290 1997). Neither of the above propositions were supported by our results, which rather  
291 point towards a species identity effect; i.e., the probability of finding species with the  
292 ability to tolerate a range of environmental conditions.

293 In a comprehensive synthesis of 119 experiments conducted on freely assembled plant  
294 communities, the results showed that, in 75% of cases, functional composition (i.e.,  
295 species identity effect) was more important than biodiversity (i.e., species richness or  
296 related metrics) as a driver of ecosystem functioning (van der Plas, 2019). The same  
297 study also revealed that biodiversity - ecosystem functioning relationships, whether  
298 strong or not, are unaffected by functional composition, indicating that biodiversity and  
299 functional composition operate along different pathways (van der Plas, 2019). The above  
300 results are in line with those from the present study and support that plant biodiversity  
301 experiments conducted under controlled conditions may not be representative of naturally  
302 and freely assembled communities (e.g., Wardle et al., 2016).

303 Our findings suggest that intraspecific variation is a key driver of the functioning of plant  
304 communities. For example, the biomass production of individual plant species in  
305 assemblage vs monoculture communities (i.e., species relative yield) was shown to vary  
306 both ways by a factor 10 in forbs (Marquard et al., 2009) and a factor 3 in trees (Tobner  
307 et al., 2016). Species may either increase or decrease their relative yield, irrespective of  
308 species richness. Moreover, the seasonal dynamics of soil conditions within plant  
309 communities could shape the intraspecific variation of greening phenology patterns. In  
310 particular, soil water and nitrogen content are important determinants of the intraspecific  
311 variation of functional traits in wetlands (Born and Michalski, 2017, Moor et al., 2017).  
312 According to the leaf economic spectrum, plants with a higher specific leaf area and  
313 nitrogen content display a shorter leaf lifespan, which could influence their greening  
314 season length. Thus, plant communities with a higher functional diversity could host  
315 species with both long and short leaf lifespan, therefore increasing temporal  
316 complementarity among phenology patterns.

317 Over the four years of our study, reed canarygrass, bluejoint reedgrass and spotted Joe  
318 Pye weed dominated in a majority of communities with a longer greening season,  
319 irrespective of species richness. While long greening seasons were consistently  
320 associated with the above species, those associated with a short growing season were  
321 more idiosyncratic (Appendix S3, Supplementary information). In particular,  
322 communities dominated by the reed canarygrass could display the longest greening  
323 season in one year and the shortest season the next year (Rheault et al., 2015). The  
324 adaptation of reed canarygrass to a range of environmental conditions is well documented  
325 in the literature (Martina and von Ende, 2012). The species has naturalized from forage

326 crop cultivars and display high levels of genotypic and phenotypic variability (Casler,  
327 2010; Sahramaa, 2003). Plant phenology is a key descriptor of the functioning of  
328 ecosystems, which responds to changes in environmental conditions and drives processes  
329 such as carbon uptake and evapotranspiration (Morissette et al., 2009). Measures of plant  
330 phenology that are pattern-based, like in the present study, rather than species-based  
331 could be useful to assess the greening dynamics of plant communities. The SVD analysis  
332 of image time-series proposed here provides such a basis for assessing the greening  
333 season length and the number of phenology patterns within plant communities. Further  
334 work that disentangle the independent contribution of species and functional diversity on  
335 ecosystem functioning is critically needed.

336

### 337 Conclusion

338 A strong negative relationship is often observed between the species richness of wetland  
339 communities and their ecological uniqueness, suggesting that communities dominated by  
340 a few plant species are often exceptional in terms of composition (Dubois et al., 2020).  
341 Furthermore, the positive influence of species richness on ecosystem functioning in freely  
342 assembled communities is often far less substantial than the relative effects of species  
343 composition and climatic factors (van der Plas, 2019). Studies focused on the greening  
344 season length as an ecosystem variable also reached similar conclusions (e.g., Oehri et  
345 al., 2017; Rheault et al., 2020). This was again obvious from the present study, where the  
346 greening season length of wetland communities was influenced by year-to-year change in  
347 environmental conditions, as well as intra-specific variation in the functional response of  
348 a few dominant species. Time may be ripe for the biodiversity-ecosystem functioning

349 agenda to test other dimensions of biodiversity that are less species focused or dependent,  
350 especially in naturally assembled communities.

351

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358

## 359 Author contributions

360 GR, RP and EL contributed to conceive and design the study. GR conducted the  
361 experiment and collected the data. GR, RP and YR analysed the data. GR lead the writing  
362 of the manuscript. GR, RP and EL contributed to the writing of the manuscript and gave  
363 final approval for publication.

364

## 365 Data availability statement

366 The data are available in Appendix S4 of the supplementary information file.

367

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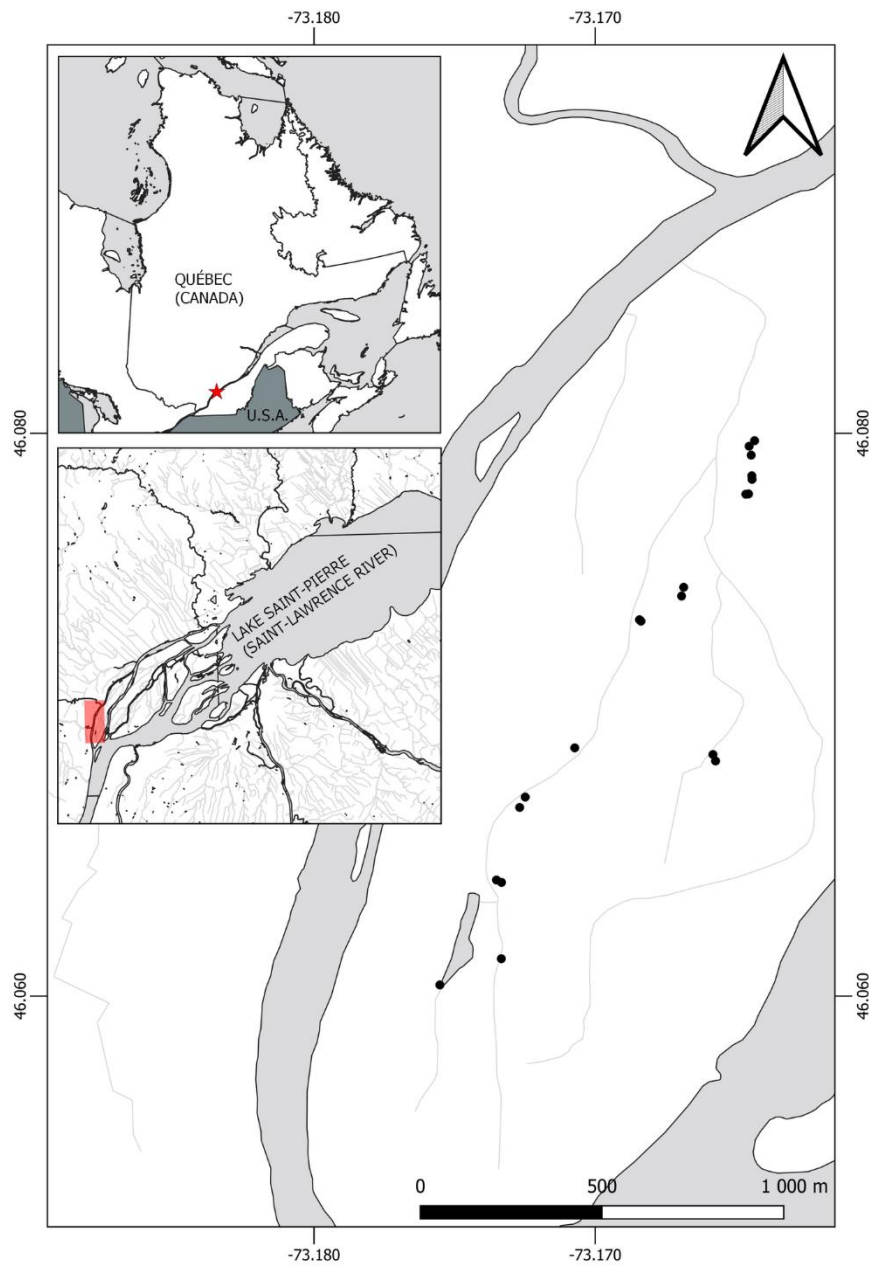
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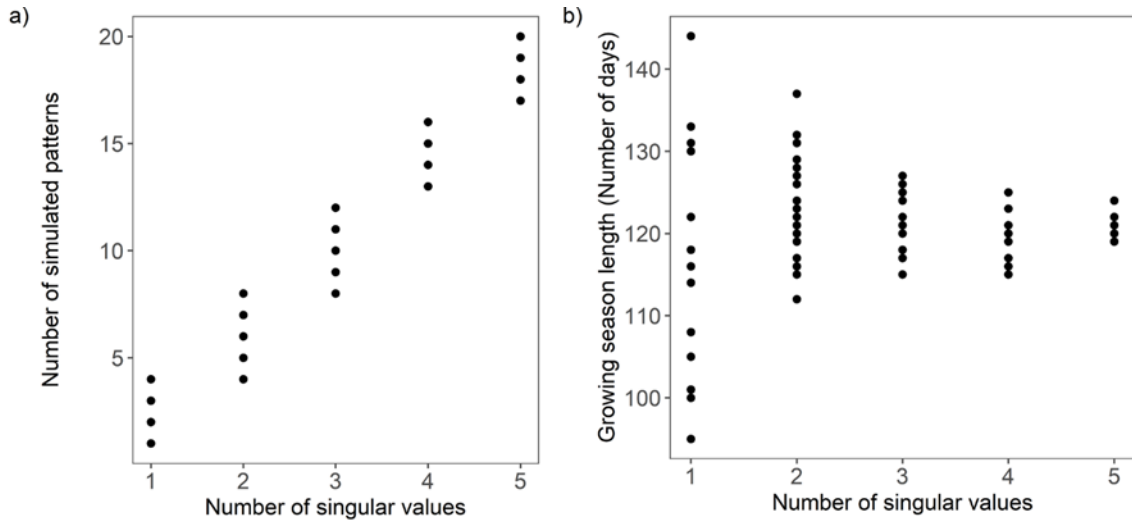
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534 Figure 1. Location of the study area (insets) and of the 20 wetland plant communities  
535 used to monitor species richness and greening phenology in the Province of Québec,  
536 Canada.

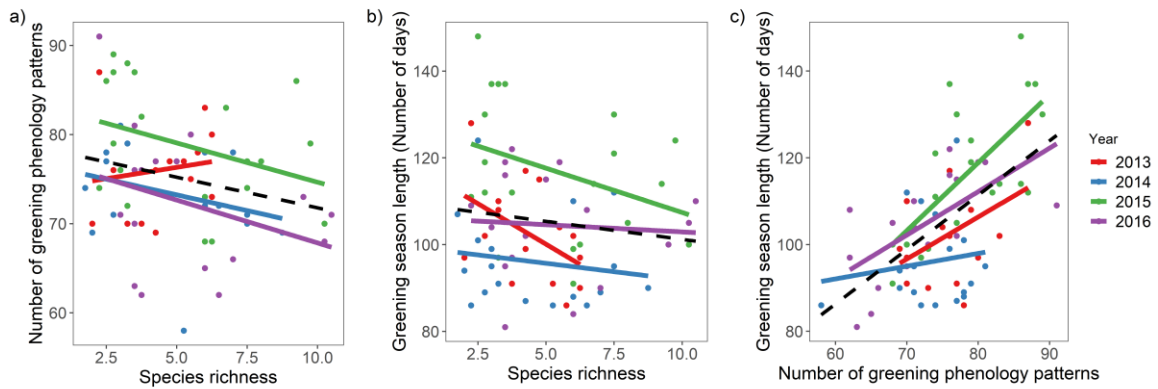


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538 Figure 2. Correlations between the number of greening phenology patterns detected  
 539 (number of singular values) and simulations of a) the number of phenology patterns, b)  
 540 the greening season length. The numbers of singular values was extracted from the SVD  
 541 of 100 simulated image time-series randomly combining 1 to 20 phenology patterns  
 542 elapsing from 100 to 145 greening days.

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545

546 Figure 3. Analysis of 20 freely assembled wetland plant communities of the SAuVER  
547 network in the period 2013-2016. Linear relationships between a) number of greening  
548 phenology patterns and species richness, b) greening season length and species richness  
549 and c) greening season length and number of greening phenology patterns. Each color  
550 represents a different year and the dashed line represents the global relationship across all  
551 years. The number of greening phenology patterns is the number of singular values  
552 extracted from the SVD analysis of image time-series.

553

554

555 Supporting information

556 Appendix S1. Rank abundance of the plant species observed across the 20 monitored  
557 wetland communities.

558 Appendix S2. Sensitivity of the SVD analysis to discriminate the number of greening  
559 phenology patterns in the image time-series.

560 Appendix S3. Identity of the dominant plant species associated to short and long greening  
561 seasons in 2013-2016.

562 Appendix S4. Dataset of species richness, number of greening phenology patterns and  
563 plant phenology values for 20 wetland communities in each of the four years of  
564 monitoring.

565