

1 **Timing of drought in the growing season and strong legacy effects**
2 **determine the annual productivity of temperate grasses in a**
3 **changing climate**

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10 **Abstract**

11 The frequency of extreme weather events, such as droughts, is assumed to increase and lead to alterations of ecosystem
12 productivity and thus the terrestrial carbon cycle. Although grasslands typically show reduced productivity in response
13 to drought, the effects of drought on grassland productivity have been shown to vary strongly. Here we tested in a two-
14 year field experiment, if the resistance and the recovery of grasses towards drought varies throughout a growing season
15 and if the timing of drought influences drought-induced reductions in annual aboveground net primary production (ANPP)
16 of grasses. For the experiment we grew six temperate and perennial C3 grass species and cultivars in a field as pure stands.
17 The grasses were cut six times during the growing season and subject to 10-week drought treatments that occurred either
18 in the spring, the summer or the fall. Averaged across all grasses, drought-induced losses of productivity in spring were
19 smaller (-20% to -51%) than in summer and fall (-77% to -87%). This suggests a higher resistance to drought in spring
20 when plants are in their reproductive stage and their productivity is the highest. After the release of drought, we found no
21 prolonged suppression of growth. In contrast, post-drought growth rates of formerly drought-stressed swards
22 outperformed the growth rates of the control swards. The strong overcompensation of growth after drought release
23 resulted in relatively small overall drought-induced losses in annual ANPP that ranged from -4% to -14% and were not
24 affected by the timing of the drought event. In summary, our results show that (i) the resistance of growth rates in grasses
25 to drought varies across the season and is increased during the reproductive phenological stage when growth rates are
26 highest, (ii) that positive legacy effects of drought indicate a high recovery potential of temperate grasses to drought, and
27 (iii) that the high recovery can compensate immediate drought effects on total annual biomass production to a significant
28 extent.

29 1. Introduction

30 Numerous studies have attempted to quantify the effects of drought on grassland ecosystems in the past decade. In general,
31 these studies have confirmed that drought-induced water limitation typically leads to a reduction of net primary
32 productivity (NPP) (Fuchslueger et al., 2014, 2016; Gherardi and Sala, 2019; Wilcox et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2011).
33 Importantly, however, these studies have also shown that the response of ecosystems to experimental drought can vary
34 quite dramatically (Gherardi and Sala, 2019; Gilgen and Buchmann, 2009; Grant et al., 2014; Hoover et al., 2014; Wilcox
35 et al., 2017). Among others, the drought response of grasslands has been shown to depend on the severity of the
36 experienced drought (Vicca et al., 2012; Wilcox et al., 2017), and important secondary factors such as the type of
37 grassland affected (Byrne et al., 2013; Gherardi and Sala, 2019; Sala et al., 2015; Wilcox et al., 2017), the intensity of
38 land use (Vogel et al., 2012; Walter et al., 2012), the plant functional composition (Gherardi and Sala, 2015; Hofer et al.,
39 2016, 2017a; Mackie et al., 2018), or the biodiversity of an ecosystem (Haughey et al., 2018; Isbell et al., 2015; Kahmen
40 et al., 2005; Wagg et al., 2017). These secondary factors that affect the responses of terrestrial ecosystems to drought are
41 just beginning to be understood (Reichstein et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2011). Defining their impact on the drought response
42 of terrestrial ecosystems is yet essential for quantitative predictions of drought effects on the carbon cycle and for the
43 ultimate inclusion of drought responses of terrestrial ecosystems in coupled land surface models (Paschalis et al., 2020;
44 Schiermeier, 2010; Smith et al., 2014).

45 Grassland ecosystems often show a pronounced seasonality, where plants undergo different phenological,
46 physiological, morphological or ontogenetic stages throughout a year (Gibson, 2009; Voigtländer and Boeker, 1987).
47 Temperate European grasslands for example, are highly productive early in the growing season during reproductive
48 growth, while they show much lower growth rates during vegetative stages in summer and fall (Menzi et al., 1991; Voisin,
49 1988). Several studies have addressed how the seasonal timing of drought affects aboveground net primary productivity
50 (ANPP) of North American C4 grasslands (Nippert et al., 2006; Petrie et al., 2018). It has been suggested that moisture
51 availability during stalk production of the dominant C4 grass species in mid-summer is particularly important for
52 maintaining the annual productivity of these grasslands (Denton et al., 2017; La Pierre et al., 2011). For C3 dominated
53 temperate grasslands, this would imply that spring, when grasses flower and have the highest growth rates, is the time
54 when the productivity should be most susceptible to drought and that productivity should be less prone to drought-induced
55 losses in the summer and fall. Empirical evidence how the seasonal timing of a drought event affects the productivity of
56 temperate C3 dominated grasslands is, however, missing.

57 The impact of drought on the annual ANPP of ecosystems depends on the immediate effects of drought on
58 productivity (determined by the drought resistance of the ecosystem), but also on potential legacy effects that occur after
59 drought release (determined by the drought recovery of the ecosystem) (Sala et al., 2012; Seastedt and Knapp, 1993). In
60 particular legacy effects of drought are a critical yet rarely explored component that can strongly affect the impact of

61 drought on the annual ANPP of an ecosystem (Finn et al., 2018; Ingrisch and Bahn, 2018; Petrie et al., 2018; Sala et al.,
62 2012). Previously it was believed that the drought history (e.g. previous year annual precipitation deficit) of an ecosystem
63 is crucial for the annual ANPP and that the magnitude of the drought history negatively influences current ANPP (Mackie
64 et al., 2018; Reichmann et al., 2013; Sala et al., 2012; Yahdjian and Sala, 2006). In contrast, there is now increasing
65 evidence that drought stressed plants or ecosystems can respond to drought release also with an overcompensation of
66 their physiological activity or growth (Griffin-Nolan et al., 2018; Hofer et al., 2017a; Shen et al., 2016). Following an
67 experimental drought, tropical and temperate tree seedlings have, for example, exhibited higher net photosynthesis rates
68 than seedlings that had not experienced a drought event (Hagedorn et al., 2016; O'Brien et al., 2017). In grasslands, Hofer
69 et al. (2016) recently have shown that formerly drought-stressed swards had a higher productivity in the post-drought
70 period than non-stressed control swards. Other studies have shown that the species richness of a grassland contributes to
71 this effect (Kreyling et al., 2017; Wagg et al., 2017). Even across growing seasons it has been suggested that the previous
72 growing season precipitation patterns can have positive legacy effects on the current year productivity of ecosystems
73 (Shen et al., 2016). As legacy effects can either worsen or diminish immediate drought effects on annual ANPP, their
74 assessment is essential to determine if the sensitivity of annual ANPP to the timing of drought is driven by the resistance
75 or the recovery of the system (Petrie et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2016). This requires, however, a detailed analysis of not
76 only annual ANPP, but the assessment of biomass increase (i.e. productivity) during and after the release of a drought
77 event.

78 In the work that we present here, we experimentally assessed if the drought response of the annual ANPP (i.d.
79 the productivity of standing above-ground biomass) of six different grass species and cultivars that are common in
80 temperate C3 grasslands depends on the timing of the drought event in the growing season. To do so, we determined the
81 drought resistance and recovery for these grasses in different times of the growing season. Specifically, we tested in our
82 study,

- 83 i) if the timing of a drought event within the growing season (e.g. spring, summer, fall) has an effect on
84 the immediate aboveground productivity reduction – i.e. the resistance of an ecosystem,
- 85 ii) if the timing of a drought event within the growing season affects the recovery of an ecosystem, and
- 86 iii) how the combination of resistance and recovery in different times of the growing season impacts the
87 annual ANPP of drought-stressed C3 grasses.

88

89 2. Materials and methods

90 2.1 Research site

91 The experiment was performed in the years 2014 and 2015 near Zurich, Switzerland (47°26'N, 8°31'E, altitude: 490 m
92 a.s.l., mean annual temperature: 9.4°C, mean annual precipitation: 1031 mm) on an eutric cambisol soil. For the
93 experiment, we established four perennial C3 grass species, two of them in two cultivars, all of which are commonly used
94 in agricultural practice in August 2013 on 96 plots (3 × 5 m). The grasses were sown as pure stands on a highly productive
95 field that yields typically around 12 t grass dry matter per year and hectare (i.e. 1200 g m⁻²). The establishment followed
96 the basic procedures of sowing permanent highly productive grasslands, where before sowing, the existing vegetation at
97 the site (which was a winter wheat) was plowed. The grasses were established in the growing season before the experiment
98 started following best practice which guaranteed full establishment of the swards (including vernalisation during winter)
99 and full productivity in the following year. The six grasses were *Lolium perenne* L. early flowering (LPe; cultivar
100 'Artesia'), *Lolium perenne* L. late flowering (LPl; cultivar 'Elgon'), *Dactylis glomerata* L. early flowering (DGe; cultivar
101 'Barexcel'), *Dactylis glomerata* L. late flowering (DGl; cultivar 'Beluga'), *Lolium multiflorum* Lam. var *italicum* Beck
102 (LM; cultivar 'Midas'), and *Poa pratensis* L. (PP; cultivar 'Lato'). Phosphorous, potassium and manganese were applied
103 following national Swiss fertilization recommendations for intensely managed grasslands at the beginning of each
104 growing season (39 kg P ha⁻¹, 228 kg K ha⁻¹, 35 kg Mg ha⁻¹). In addition, all plots received the same amount of mineral
105 N fertilizer as ammonium-nitrate (280 kg N ha⁻¹, divided into six applications per year). The solid N fertilizer was applied
106 at the beginning of the growing season (80 kg N ha⁻¹) and after each of the first five cuts (40 kg N ha⁻¹ each time).

107

108 2.2 Experimental design

109 Each of the six grass species (different species and cultivars) was subject to four treatments: one rain-fed control and
110 three seasonal drought treatments (spring, summer, fall) (see Fig. 1). We used a randomized complete block design with
111 four blocks representing the four replicates. Each block contained all the 24 plots (six species times four treatments) fully
112 randomized. A drought treatment lasted for ten weeks. Drought was simulated using rainout shelters that excluded rainfall
113 completely on the treatment plots. The rainout shelters were tunnel-shaped and consisted of steel frames (3 × 5.5 m,
114 height: 140 cm) that were covered with transparent and UV radiation transmissible greenhouse foil (Lumisol clear, 200
115 my, Hortuna AG, Winikon, Switzerland). To allow air circulation, shelters were open on both opposing short ends and
116 had ventilation openings of 35 cm height over the entire length at the top and the bottom at both long sides. Gutters were
117 installed to prevent the water from flowing onto adjacent plots, and a 0.75 m boarder zone at each plot was not considered
118 for measurements to prevent a possible effect of lateral water flow in the soil. These shelters and plot design had
119 previously been successfully used in other grassland-drought experiments (Hofer et al., 2016, 2017a, 2017b). Rain-fed
120 controls were subject to the natural precipitation regime. However, when soil water potential (Ψ_{soil}) sank below -0.5 MPa

121 due to naturally dry conditions, control plots were additionally watered with 20 mm of water (300 l per plot). In summer
122 2014 the irrigation was delayed by approximately one week due to organizational difficulties, leading to a further decrease
123 in Ψ_{Soil} until irrigation could start. Watering happened once on June 16th and 17th 2014 and three times in 2015 (7.7.,
124 14.7., 11.8.).

125

126 **2.3 Environmental measurements**

127 Relative humidity and air temperature were measured hourly at the field site using VP-3 humidity, temperature and vapor
128 pressure sensors (Decagon Devices, Inc., Pullman, WA, USA). Measurements were conducted in control and treatment
129 plots under the rainout shelters (n=2). Information on precipitation and evapotranspiration was provided by the national
130 meteorological service stations (MeteoSchweiz) that were in close proximity of our research site (average of the two
131 surrounding meteorological stations Zurich Affoltern in 1.4 km distance and Zurich Kloten in 4.5 km distance). Ψ_{Soil} was
132 measured in 10 cm depth on an hourly basis using 32 MPS-2 dielectric water potential sensors (Decagon Devices, Inc.,
133 Pullman, WA, USA). The 32 soil water potential sensors were evenly distributed over the field and treatments. Daily
134 means of all measurements were calculated per treatment, but across grasses since no grass-specific alterations in Ψ_{Soil}
135 were expected (Hoekstra et al., 2014) or measured (n=8).

136 In addition to soil water potential, we determined the stress intensity (I_s) as a metric to compare plant responses to reduced
137 water availability (Vicca et al., 2012). It reflects the actual treatment experienced by plants. I_s was calculated as in Granier
138 et al. (2007):

139

$$140 \quad I_s = \text{sum}(\max[0, (\text{TH}-\text{REW}_t)/\text{TH}]). \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

141

142 Where TH is the threshold (i.e. TH = 0.4; Granier et al. (2007)) and REW_t is the relative extractable soil water on day t.

143 REW is calculated as follows (Jiao et al., 2019):

144

$$145 \quad \text{REW} = (\Psi_{\text{Soil}} - \Psi_{\text{Soil wp}}) / (\Psi_{\text{Soil fc}} - \Psi_{\text{Soil wp}}), \quad \text{Eq (2)}$$

146

147 with $\Psi_{\text{Soil wp}}$ being the soil water potential at field capacity (i.e. -0.03 MPa; Granier et al. (2007)) and $\Psi_{\text{Soil fc}}$ being the soil
148 water potential at wilting point (-1.5 MPa).

149

150 **2.4 Harvests**

151 Aboveground biomass was harvested six times per year in five-week intervals in 2014 and 2015, resulting in six growth
152 periods per year (see Fig. 1). Aboveground biomass was also harvested once in spring 2016. Such a high frequency of
153 harvests is typical for highly productive European grasslands used for fodder production. For the purpose of our study
154 this high-resolution biomass sampling allows the analyses of the immediate drought effects and the impacts of drought
155 that occur after the release of drought on productivity. The harvests were synchronized with the drought treatments and
156 occurred five and ten weeks after the installation of the shelters on a respective treatment. For the harvest, aboveground
157 biomass was cut at 7 cm height above the ground and harvested from a central strip (5×1.5 m) of the plot (5×3 m) using
158 an experimental plot harvester (Hege 212, Wintersteiger AG, Ried/I., Austria). The fresh weight of the total harvest of a
159 plot was determined with an integrated balance directly on the plot harvester. Dry biomass production was determined
160 by assessing dry weight – fresh weight ratios of the harvested biomass. For this a biomass subsample was collected for
161 each plot and the fresh and dry weight (dried at 60°C for 48 h) were determined. After the harvest of the aboveground
162 biomass in the central strip of a plot, the remaining standing biomass in a plot was mowed 7 cm above the ground and
163 removed.

164

165 **2.5 Roots**

166 Belowground biomass of four grasses (DGe, DGI, LPe and LPI) was harvested six times per year. For each treatment
167 samples were collected at the end of a drought treatment and six to eight weeks after drought release from the respective
168 treatment and control plots. Samples were collected using a manual soil auger with a diameter of 7 cm. For each plot
169 samples of the upper 14 cm soil were taken from two different spots (one sample directly from a tussock and one from in
170 between tussocks) and pooled as one sample per plot. All samples were washed using a sieve with a mesh size of 0.5 cm
171 \times 0.5 cm and weighed after drying (at 60°C for 72 h).

172

173 **2.6 Determining drought impacts on productivity**

174 In order to allow the comparison of grassland productivity in the different treatments across the two years we standardized
175 the productivity that occurred in between two harvest periods (i.e. during five weeks) for growth related temperature
176 effects and calculated temperature-weighted growth rates for each of the six grasses (DMYTsum, see Menzi et al. (1991)).
177 For this purpose, we determined temperature sums of daily mean air temperature (as measured in the treatment and control
178 plots) above a baseline temperature of 5°C (Tsum) for each growth period (i.e. 5 weeks prior to harvest). Dry matter yield
179 (DMY) of a given harvest was then divided by the temperature sum of the corresponding time period to obtain
180 temperature-weighted growth rates (henceforth referred to simple as growth rate):

181

$$182 \quad \text{DMYTsum} = \text{DMY}(\text{g m}^{-2})/\text{Tsum}(\text{°C}). \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

183

184 To determine the absolute change of growth (ACG) of a drought treatment on aboveground growth rate we calculated the
185 difference between temperature-weighted growth rates in a drought treatment (drt) and the corresponding control (ctr):

186

$$187 \quad \text{ACG} = \text{DMYTsum}(\text{drt}) - \text{DMYTsum}(\text{ctr}). \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

188

189 To determine the relative change of growth (RCG) due to drought, we calculated percentage change of temperature-
190 weighted growth rates:

191

$$192 \quad \text{RCG} = 100 \times (\text{DMYTsum}(\text{drt}) / \text{DMYTsum}(\text{ctr}) - 1). \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

193

194 Annual ANPP as an average of the different grasses was determined by adding up the dry matter yields of the six harvests
195 of a growing season. These data were not temperature-corrected dry matter yield (DMY).

196

197 **2.7 Data analysis**

198 Relative and absolute changes in DMYTsum due to drought, the season of drought, and the tested grasses were analyzed
199 using linear mixed-effects models (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000). Temperature-weighted growth rate (DMYTsum) was
200 regressed on the fixed variables season (factor of three levels: spring, summer, fall), drought (factor of two levels: control,
201 drought treatment) and grass (factor of six levels: LPe, LPl, DGe, DGl, LM, PP), including all interactions. To account
202 for repeated measurements of the control plots over time (as the control for every seasonal drought treatment was the
203 same), plot was specified as a random factor, thereby accounting for potential correlation of DMYTsum over time.
204 DMYTsum was natural log-transformed prior to analysis to improve homogeneity and normal distribution of residual
205 variance. This transformation also implies that the regressions provide the inference to relative changes in DMYTsum,
206 namely RCG. A temporal compound symmetry correlation structure was initially imposed on the residuals, yet, it turned
207 out that the estimated correlation parameter was very small. A likelihood ratio test indicated its non-significance ($p > 0.5$)
208 and it was finally omitted. However, inspection of residuals revealed clear differences in their variance among seasons
209 and control and drought plots, and the residual variance parameter was defined as $\text{Var}(e_{jk}) = \sigma^2 \delta_{jk}^2$, with δ being a ratio to
210 represent $j \times k$ variances, one for each of three seasons j under control and drought conditions k (Pinheiro and Bates,
211 2000). The marginal and conditional R^2 of the model was calculated following Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2013). This
212 model was applied to DMYTsum at each second growth period under drought and the second post-drought growth period
213 in 2014 and 2015. Finally, absolute changes in DMYTsum are displayed in figures to improve the interpretation of the
214 data.

215 Root dry weight was analyzed in a similar way, i.e. it was natural log-transformed prior to analyses and the same
216 explanatory factors were applied in a mixed model, except that the factor grass had only four levels (only LPe, LPI, DGe
217 and DGI measured). Here, estimation of a single residual variance parameter e_i was sufficient to fulfill the model
218 assumptions. This model was applied to root dry weight harvested in 2014 at the end of each drought treatment and six
219 to eight weeks after drought-release. Absolute changes in root dry weight are displayed in figures without further tests.

220 Annual ANPP was analyzed by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The first factor season-treatment
221 consisted of the four levels control, spring drought, summer drought, and fall drought; the second factor grass consisted
222 of six levels, representing the six grasses. This ANOVA was performed for each of the years 2014 and 2015.

223 All statistical analyses were done using the statistical software R, version 3.5.1 (R Foundation for Statistical
224 Computing, Vienna, Austria, 2018). Mixed-effects models were fit using the package *nlme*, version 3.1-137, (Pinheiro
225 and Bates, 2000), and graphics were implemented with the package *ggplot2*, version 2.1.0 (Wickham, 2016).

226 3. Results

227 3.1 *Precipitation, evapotranspiration and soil water potential*

228 Over the entire growing season, the year 2015 was exceptionally dry, while 2014 showed normal weather conditions for
229 the experimental site. The difference between rainfall (717.9 and 648.5 mm for 2014 and 2015, respectively; see Tab. 1)
230 and evapotranspiration (356 and 447 mm for 2014 and 2015, respectively; shown in Fig. 1), i.e. the ecosystem water
231 balance, was 361.9 mm in 2014 and only 201.5 mm in 2015 for the unsheltered control plots. The shelter periods reduced
232 the total annual precipitation in the different treatments between -17.9 % and -37.0 % and the precipitation of the growing
233 season (duration of the experiment, approx. March – November) by between -23.1 % and -45.8 % (see Table 1).

234 In 2014 Ψ_{soil} was severely reduced in the drought treatments and reached values around the permanent wilting
235 point (-1.5 MPa) for the entire second half of the sheltered periods in all treatments (spring, summer, fall) (Fig. 2b-e,
236 Table 2). Due to low rainfall in June 2014, Ψ_{soil} dropped not only in the sheltered summer drought treatment, but also in
237 the control and the fall drought treatment (that was not yet sheltered). Ψ_{soil} recovered in the treatment plots after each
238 sheltered period and reached Ψ_{soil} values comparable to the ones in the control plots. Because of the lack of rain in June
239 2014, the full rewetting of the spring drought treatment occurred only in the second post-drought growth period after the
240 spring drought shelter period, while after the summer drought treatment rewetting occurred already in the first post-
241 drought growth period.

242 In 2015, drought treatments reduced Ψ_{soil} in all seasons (Fig. 2g-k). However, an intense rain event caused some
243 surface runoff in the field on May 1st 2015, which partly interrupted the spring drought treatment. Still, for the second
244 growth period of the spring drought treatment of 2015 the median of Ψ_{soil} was at -0.77 MPa, a value comparable to that
245 of the second growth period of the summer drought treatment (-0.83 MPa) (Table 2). Also I_s values demonstrate that
246 water stress severity in weeks six to 10 of the spring treatment ($I_s=14$) reached levels at least as severe as during the
247 corresponding weeks of the summer drought treatment ($I_s=4$; Table 2). In 2015 Ψ_{soil} reached lower values during the
248 shelter period in the fall treatment than during the shelter period in the spring and summer treatments. Due to a lack of
249 rain in 2015, Ψ_{soil} and I_s values recovered only partly after the end of the shelter period in the spring and summer drought
250 treatments and remained significantly below that of the control plots for both post-drought growth periods (Table 2).
251 Watering of the control plots during natural dry conditions lead to quick increases in Ψ_{soil} to values close to saturation
252 (=0 MPa).

253 Daily mean air temperature under the rainout shelters was 0.7°C and 0.6°C higher in 2014 and 2015, respectively
254 (Table 2).

255

256 3.2 *Varying growth rates throughout the growing season*

257 The temperature-weighted growth rates of the investigated six grass species and cultivars in the control plots showed a
258 very strong seasonal pattern (Fig. 3a). In both years, it was highest during the second growth period in spring and sharply
259 declined to values that were two- to eight-fold smaller in summer and fall. In summer and autumn 2015 growth rates of
260 the grasses were clearly lower than in 2014. Root biomass increased towards summer and slightly decreased after summer
261 in 2014 (Fig. 3b, Table A1; season $p < 0.001$).

262

263 **3.3 Seasonality of drought resistance**

264 The growth rates of the six grass species and cultivars were barely affected by the exclusion of rain during the first five
265 weeks of sheltering (Fig. 4). However, during the second sheltered growth period (drought weeks six to ten), the drought
266 treatments strongly reduced temperature-weighted growth rates in all seasons, in both years, and in relative and absolute
267 terms (Figs. 4, and 5, Table 3). In both years, averaged over all six grasses, the relative drought-induced changes in growth
268 rates compared to the controls were smallest in spring (2014: -51%, 2015: -20%) and clearly larger in summer (2014: -
269 81%, 2015: -85%) and fall (2014: -77%, 2015: -84%) (Fig. 4a, Table 3; season \times treatment $p < 0.001$). As such, the drought
270 resistance of temperate grasses throughout the growing season was largest in spring when their growth rates in the control
271 were especially high (Fig. 3a; second regrowth). This pattern was generally observed for all six grass species and cultivars
272 tested (Fig. 5a) even though there was a significant season \times treatment \times grass interaction (Table 3). In 2014 this
273 interaction mainly derived from DGI and PP showing an exceptionally large drought induced growth reduction in fall. In
274 2015 it was explained by an especially low drought response of DGI in spring and strong responses of DGI in summer
275 and LPe and PP in fall (Fig. 5a).

276 In 2014 the absolute drought-induced reduction of growth across all six grass species and cultivars was largest
277 in spring ($-0.5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), followed by summer ($-0.4 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$) and was lowest in the fall ($-0.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4b).
278 Likewise, in 2015 the absolute reduction of the growth rate in the drought treated plots was largest across the six grass
279 species and cultivars in spring ($-0.2 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), but slightly lower in summer ($-0.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$) and fall ($-0.1 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ }^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$).

280 The average standing root biomass across four of the grasses was not significantly affected by any of the drought
281 treatments of 2014 (Fig. 6, Table A1; treatment $p = 0.572$, season \times treatment $p = 0.825$).

282

283 **3.4 Seasonality of post-drought recovery**

284 When compared to corresponding controls, relative and absolute changes in temperature-weighted growth rates after
285 drought release showed positive treatment effects in 2014 (Fig. 7, Table 4). Across all six grass species and cultivars, the
286 relative increases in post-drought growth rates were 41% after the spring drought treatment, 31% after the summer drought
287 treatment and 53% after the fall drought treatment, and did not differ among the seasons (Table 4; season \times treatment
288 $p = 0.180$). In 2015, the relative increases in post-drought growth rates were 5% after the spring drought treatment, 15%

289 after the summer drought treatment and 52% after the fall drought treatment, and did differ among the seasons (Table 4;
290 season \times treatment $p < 0.001$). Increased relative and absolute growth rates were also observed in the first harvest in 2015
291 and 2016 for all the plots that had received a drought treatment in 2014 and 2015, respectively (Fig. 4). In this first harvest
292 of 2015, relative growth rate increases were 110% after the spring, 36% after the summer and 53% after the fall drought
293 treatments of 2014. In the first harvest of 2016, relative growth rate increases were 10% after the spring, 31% after the
294 summer and 51% after the fall drought treatments of 2015.

295 When compared across the different grass species and cultivars, the only grass that tended to have a weak
296 recovery (lower or no increase of growth rate during post-drought) was LM (Fig. 7); but there was no significant
297 difference among the grass species and cultivars (Table 4; treatment \times grass $p = 0.517$). In 2015 again LM showed the
298 weakest recovery of all the grasses after all drought treatments, the effect being significant (Table 4; treatment \times grass
299 $p < 0.001$).

300 Root dry weight of the treatment plants generally showed no alterations in growth compared to the control (Fig.
301 6, Table A1; treatment $p = 0.553$).

302

303 **3.5 Effects of seasonal drought on annual biomass production**

304 The cumulative annual aboveground biomass production (annual ANPP) of the controls averaged across all six grass
305 species and cultivars differed strongly between the two years (Fig. 8a), with 2014 ($1303 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$) being 37% more
306 productive than 2015 ($949 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$). The strong reduction in biomass production in 2015 was probably related to the
307 naturally occurring lack of rain in summer and fall (Fig 2). But because the control was irrigated when strong stress
308 occurred this cannot explain the whole extent. This is evident from the two spring growth periods being equally productive
309 in the unsheltered plots (control, summer and fall drought) in 2015 and in 2014 (Fig. 8). The annual ANPP of the
310 treatments was significantly different from control in both years (Table A2; season-treatment $p < 0.001$ for 2014 and
311 $p = 0.007$ for 2015). In 2014, the largest drought effect on the annual ANPP across all grasses resulted from the summer
312 treatment, which reduced productivity significantly by -14% (185 g m^{-2}) compared to the control (Fig 8). Spring and fall
313 drought treatments in 2014 resulted in a non-significant -4% (-53 g m^{-2}) and -6% (-74 g m^{-2}) reduction of annual ANPP
314 across all grass species and cultivars, respectively. In 2015, drought treatments in the summer and fall significantly caused
315 a -10% and -11% reduction of annual ANPP across all grasses (-97 g m^{-2} and -105 g m^{-2}), respectively, while the spring
316 drought treatment reduced annual ANPP across all grasses by only -4% (-34 g m^{-2}), which was not significant (Fig. 8).

317

318 4. Discussion

319 In our study we experimentally assessed if the drought resistance and recovery of six different temperate perennial C3
320 grass species and cultivars varies throughout the growing season and if the timing of a drought event has an influence on
321 drought induced reductions in annual ANPP of these grasses. All six temperate grass species and cultivars showed a clear
322 seasonal pattern of drought resistance in both years. The drought-induced reduction of growth was smaller under spring
323 drought (-20% and -51% for the two years when averaged across the six grasses) than under summer and fall droughts
324 (between -77% and -87%). Thus, the investigated grasslands were more resistant to drought in the spring when
325 productivity of temperate grasses is generally the highest and they were least resistant in summer and fall, when their
326 productivity is much lower. Moreover, the examined grasslands did not show any negative legacy effects such as a
327 prolonged suppression of growth after rewetting following the end of the drought treatments. In contrast, after the release
328 of drought, temperature-weighted growth rates of the grasses in the treatment plots surprisingly outperformed the growth
329 rates of the grasses in the controls for extended periods of time. This suggests a high recovery potential of all six grasses
330 that we investigated. As a consequence of the high recovery, the seasonal drought treatments resulted in only moderate
331 drought-induced reductions in annual ANPP between -4% to -14% - despite the strong immediate effects of drought - and
332 no clear effects of the timing of drought on annual ANPP were detected. With this our study shows (i) that the resistance
333 of growth rates in different grasses to drought varies throughout the growing season and is increased during the
334 reproductive phenological stage when growth rates in the control were highest, (ii) that positive legacy effects of drought
335 on plant productivity indicate a high recovery potential of temperate C3 grasses throughout the entire growing season,
336 and (iii) that the high recovery can compensate to a significant extent for immediate seasonal drought effects on
337 productivity, resulting in total annual ANPP that is only marginally reduced in the drought treated plots compared to the
338 controls.

339

340 4.1 Differences in the meteorological conditions between the two years

341 While the first experimental year (2014) was characterized by more or less normal meteorological and thus growth
342 conditions, the summer of 2015 was exceptionally dry in all of central Europe (Dietrich et al., 2018; Orth et al., 2016).
343 These conditions led to a reduction of the annual ANPP of the control plots by -37% in 2015 compared to 2014 (Fig. 8).
344 The lack of precipitation in the second half of the 2015 growing season, i.e. between the third harvest in June and the last
345 harvest in October (Fig. 2), was of importance for our experiment, especially for the response of the treatments during
346 the recovery phase after the removal of the shelters. In this period, the amount of rainfall was only 153 mm in 2015 while
347 it was 405 mm in 2014. Thus, positive legacy effects directly following drought treatments were much smaller or absent
348 following the spring and summer treatments in 2015 due to a missing rewetting (Figs. 2, 4 and 7). Yet, strong positive
349 legacy effects in response to the 2015 treatments were observed in the first harvest of 2016 when the experimental site

350 was fully rehydrated. This highlights the general occurrence of positive drought legacy effects in the investigated
351 grasslands once the soil moisture has recovered from the drought treatments and indicates some long-lasting mechanisms
352 behind this overcompensation, as full rewetting occurred already half a year before the harvest in 2016.

353 Intense rains between the first and second harvest of the year 2015 caused some water flow into the treatments.
354 This resulted in a partial reduction of drought stress in the treatment plots (Fig. 2h). Yet, both the median of the soil water
355 potential and the I_s were still clearly reduced in the treatment plots compared to the control and, consequently, we
356 observed a reduction of growth rates in the second spring harvest in 2015 despite this event (Figs. 4, 5). We therefore
357 conclude that the partial reduction in drought stress did weaken the immediate drought response during the growth period
358 concerned, but that this does not question the overall drought responses of the grasslands that we report here. This is
359 especially evident from the drought stress during weeks six to ten being of comparable severity (Table 2).

360

361 **4.2 Grasses were most resistant to drought in spring, the most productive phenological stage**

362 Previous studies have indicated that the timing of drought is relevant for the reduction of annual ANPP of ecosystems
363 (Bates et al., 2006; Denton et al., 2017; La Pierre et al., 2011; Nippert et al., 2006). It has been argued that the variable
364 drought sensitivity of ecosystems throughout the growing season could be linked to different phenological stages of
365 dominant plant species, where plants in reproductive stages and periods of high growth are particularly susceptible to
366 drought (Bates et al., 2006; Craine et al., 2012; Dietrich and Smith, 2016; Heitschmidt and Vermeire, 2006; O'Toole,
367 1982). We found, however, that relative reductions in temperature-weighted growth rates were lowest in the spring
368 treatments 2014 and 2015 as compared to the summer and fall treatments. The highest resistance of plant growth rates to
369 drought occurred, thus, when the plants showed the highest growth rates in the control (Fig. 3) and when the investigated
370 grasses were in their reproductive stages. With this, our findings are in contrast to previous studies that have suggested
371 temperate grasslands and crops to be particularly susceptible to drought early in the growing season when their growth
372 rates are the highest and plants are in reproductive stages (Bates et al., 2006; Craine et al., 2012; Dietrich and Smith,
373 2016; Heitschmidt and Vermeire, 2006; Jongen et al., 2011; O'Toole, 1982; Robertson et al., 2009). Our study does
374 support, however, findings of El Hafid et al. (1998) and Simane et al. (1993), who detected that spring droughts have the
375 least impact on annual productivity of wheat. Importantly, most of the previous studies that have reported the effects of
376 drought timing on grasslands or other ecosystems report effects on annual ANPP but have not differentiated between
377 immediate effects and legacy effects of drought events as we did in our study. As drought impacts on annual ANPP
378 combine immediate and post drought legacy effects, it is difficult to directly compare the results we present here on
379 variably seasonal drought resistance of temperate C3 grasses to previous work reporting the influence of drought timing
380 on annual ANPP.

381 One possibility for the higher drought resistance of grasses during spring is that grasses invest more resources
382 towards the stress resistance of their tissue in this part of the growing season when they have not only the largest growth
383 rates, but also reproduce. Such a resource allocation strategy could allow drought stressed grasses to remain
384 physiologically active in this critical part of the growing season. Osmotic adjustment is one mechanism that reduces the
385 effects of drought on the physiological performance of the plant (Sanders and Arndt, 2012). This is achieved through the
386 active accumulation of organic and inorganic solutes within the plant cell. Thus, osmotic potential increases and the plant
387 can withstand more negative water potentials in the cell while maintaining its hydraulic integrity (Sánchez et al., 1998).
388 Santamaria et al. (1990) found that early- and late flowering cultivars of *Sorghum bicolor* L. developed a different pattern
389 of osmotic adjustment (continuous increase of osmotic adjustment vs. first increase and later decrease of osmotic
390 adjustment), hinting that drought tolerance may vary among seasons. In a companion paper we report physiological data
391 for the six grasses from the same experiment. We show that at a given soil water potential, foliar water potentials were
392 less negative and stomatal conductance was higher in plants drought stressed in the spring compared to plants drought
393 stressed in the summer or fall (Hahn et al. in prep). This suggests indeed that for a given drought level, grasses remain
394 physiologically more active in the spring than in the summer or fall. The exact physiological mechanisms that explain the
395 higher drought resistance of the investigated grasslands in the spring and their higher drought susceptibility in the summer
396 and fall remain yet unknown and require further detailed ecophysiological and biochemical assessments.

397 An alternative explanation for different immediate drought effects on growth rates throughout the growing
398 season are different experimentally induced drought severities throughout a growing season. This could be by either
399 residual moisture from winter dampening the experimentally induced drought more in the spring than in the summer or
400 fall. Alternatively, higher evaporative demand of the atmosphere in the summer compared to the spring or fall could have
401 enhanced experimentally induced drought effects in the summer. De Boeck et al. (2011) explain for example the higher
402 drought susceptibility of growth in three herbs in the summer compared to spring by a higher evaporative demand of the
403 atmosphere in the summer compared to spring or fall. In our study, however, soil water potential data as well as drought
404 stress intensity I_s indicate that ten weeks of drought treatment resulted in mostly equal water depletion and stress levels
405 in spring, summer and fall (Fig. 2, Table 2). In addition, we found only small differences in median VPD between the
406 spring, summer and fall drought treatment period (Fig. 2). This suggests that stronger drought stress in summer and fall
407 compared to spring cannot explain alone the different resistances of plant growth to drought throughout the growing
408 season. Along these lines, Denton et al. (2017), who performed a similar experiment as we report here but in a C4
409 grassland in North America, also did not find that these seasonal differences in the experimentally induced drought
410 severity are the reason for variable drought effects on the growth rates throughout the growing season.

411

412 **4.3 No increased root biomass in the top soil layer**

413 In the entire experiment, root biomass did not generally increase under drought (Table A1), and only increased in one of
414 the investigated grasses (DGe) in one (summer) of the three treatments. This confirms the findings of Byrne et al. (2013),
415 Denton et al. (2017) and Gill et al. (2002), who did not find any changes in belowground biomass in response to drought.
416 In a similar setting, Gilgen and Buchmann (2009) found no changes in belowground biomass to simulated summer
417 drought in three different temperate grassland sites (from lowland to alpine grassland). While Denton et al. (2017) ascribe
418 the missing drought response in belowground biomass to modest precipitation alterations in their experiment, we can
419 exclude this factor in our experiment since the soil water potential under drought was significantly reduced compared to
420 the soil water potential in the controls in every season. Contrary to our finding, several studies have shown that drought
421 can maintain or increase root growth while inhibiting shoot growth (Davies and Zhang, 1991; Hofer et al., 2017a; Saab
422 et al., 1990). In an experiment by Jupp and Newman (1987), *L. perenne* increased lateral root growth under low Ψ_{soil}
423 indicating an increased investment in root growth under water limited conditions. In our experiment the *L. perenne* grasses
424 did not show a trend towards increased investment in root growth, neither during drought nor after drought-release,
425 contradicting the results of Jupp and Newman (1987). Such differences in the response of root biomass in different studies
426 as described above may derive from the soil layer that was investigated. Hofer et al. (2017a) have shown that the response
427 of root growth into ingrowth bags depended on the soil depth: root growth of *L. perenne* decreased in the top soil layer
428 (0-10 cm), but increased in deeper soil layers of 10-30 cm. Thus, the superficial root sampling (0-14 cm) in our experiment
429 might mask increased root growth in deeper soil layers.

430

431 **4.4 Positive legacy effects of drought periods**

432 Several previous studies have suggested that drought events can lead to negative legacy effects on the productivity of
433 ecosystems (De Boeck et al., 2018; Petrie et al., 2018; Reichmann et al., 2013; Sala et al., 2012). We found, however,
434 that growth rates of previously drought-stressed plots were significantly larger than in the corresponding control plots
435 after rewetting, indicating not only a high recovery potential of the investigated grasses but even positive legacy effects
436 (Figs. 4 and 7). Interestingly, we did not only observe growth rates that were larger in the treatment plots than in the
437 control plots immediately after the drought release, but observed larger growth rates in all treatment plots compared to
438 the control plots even in the first harvests of the following growing season (Fig. 4). This pattern was consistent for both
439 years of the experiment. Bloor and Bardgett (2012) and also Denton et al. (2017) found that drought events promote soil
440 fertility and nutrient retention following drought release. Likewise, Gordon et al. (2008) found an increase in microbial
441 activity after a rewetting event, possibly leading to a rapid and sudden influx of plant available nutrients in the soil
442 (Mackie et al., 2018; Schimel and Bennett, 2004; Van Sundert et al., 2020). Hofer et al. (2017a) also attributed growth
443 increases relative to control plots in post-drought periods to nitrogen availability in the soil and Karlowisky et al. (2018)
444 found evidence that interactions between plants and microbes increase plant nitrogen uptake in grasslands after rewetting

445 events. It could, thus, be that the enhanced productivity in the treatment plots following drought release is the result of
446 increased microbial activity leading to enhanced nitrogen availability and/or changes in resource limitation following
447 drought release as suggested by Seastedt and Knapp (1993) in their Transient Maxima Hypothesis.

448 We applied nitrogen fertilizer in our experiment to each plot after each harvest, also at the beginning and in the
449 middle of a drought treatment. Since we applied the fertilizer in form of water-soluble pellets, it is possible that
450 precipitation exclusion prevented dissolution and, thus, nitrogen fertilizer pellets could have accumulated in the drought-
451 treated plots during the treatment phase. The rewetting of the soil could have resulted in a massive release of nitrogen
452 fertilizer from these pellets so that plant growth rates in formerly drought-stressed plots were stimulated by the release of
453 this fertilizer and, thus, was larger than those of the control plots. However, Hofer et al. (2017a) observed strongly
454 increased N availability and plant growth rates after drought release not only in plots that received mineral fertilizer during
455 the drought treatment period, but also in plots that did not receive any N fertilizer during drought. We suggest therefore
456 that the release of accumulated fertilizer nitrogen in the treatment plots might explain some, but not all post-treatment
457 growth responses in the formerly drought treated plots in our study.

458 Hagedorn et al. (2016) have shown that rewetting events trigger intrinsic processes that lead to a sudden increase
459 of photosynthesis in young beech trees. Moreover, Arend et al. (2016) found a rapid stimulation of photosynthesis
460 immediately after rewetting that continued until the end of the growing season, partly compensating the loss of
461 photosynthetic activity during drought. Hofer et al. (2017b) found an increased root mass and increased water-soluble
462 carbohydrate reserves in the stubbles of drought stressed *L. perenne* at the end of a drought stress period. Both of which
463 could have contribute to increased growth rates observed in their study once rewetting had occurred. Also, drought-
464 induced shifts in plant phenology could lead to a shift in high productive stages, e.g. leading to peak growth rates not in
465 spring, but in summer (O'Toole and Cruz, 1980). With the data we collected throughout our experiment, we cannot clearly
466 identify the mechanisms behind the strong and consistent post-drought growth increase that extended even into the next
467 growing season. In the end, several biogeochemical and ecophysiological mechanisms might be responsible for the
468 overcompensation of growth following drought release.

469

470 **4.5 Grass species and cultivars only slightly differed in drought resistance and recovery**

471 During the seasonal drought events the six tested grass species and cultivars showed a mostly universal response with
472 only slight and not consistent differences in their growth rate reductions. Post-drought legacy effects differed, however,
473 among the different grasses in the second year. *D. glomerata* and *P. pratensis* showed a high potential for recovery and
474 overcompensation after drought, while *L. multiflorum* generally showed the lowest recovery. Wang et al. (2007) found
475 that plant communities consisting of less productive species were more resistant to drought than plant communities
476 consisting of more productive species. The fact that inter-specific differences in the responses to the drought stress and

477 to the following rewetted post-drought period in our study were smaller than in other studies may be related to the fact
478 that all six tested grass species and cultivars belong to a relatively narrow functional group of productive fast-growing
479 grasses with high demands for mineral N in the soil. The availability of mineral N in the soil was found to be a key factor
480 for the response during as well as after drought for non-leguminous species (Hofer et al., 2017a, 2017b).

481

482 **4.6 Small to moderate impact of seasonal drought on annual ANPP**

483 Although the immediate effects of drought on growth rates were severe in all three seasons in our study, the overall effects
484 on total annual ANPP of -4 to -14% were only small to moderate compared to drought effects observed in other studies
485 (Gherardi and Sala, 2019; Wilcox et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2011) (Fig. 8). We also did not find any consistent effects of the
486 drought timing on annual ANPP, contrary to other studies (Denton et al., 2017; La Pierre et al., 2011; Nippert et al., 2006;
487 Petrie et al., 2018). This is likely a consequence of the small overall drought effects on annual ANPP in our study. The
488 small drought effects on annual ANPP that we report here are in line with Finn et al. (2018) and can be explained by the
489 high recovery of growth rates in the treatment plots following the drought release. This is in particular evident in the
490 spring treatment, where we observed on the one side the largest absolute reduction in growth in response to drought, but
491 at the same time also the strongest recovery after drought, leading to relatively small total drought effects on annual
492 ANPP. Because the fall drought treatment period lasted until the end of the vegetation period, the positive post-drought
493 legacy effects for this treatment were not included in the calculation of annual biomass production. Nevertheless, the fall
494 drought treatment in 2014 did also not strongly affect the annual ANPP. This is because the growth period affected by
495 the fall drought treatment, was the least productive part of the growing season, and, thus contributed only little to the
496 annual productivity.

497 The overall effect of drought on annual ANPP might also be small compared to other studies because our study
498 was conducted in highly productive grasslands that, according to best practice management, were harvested six times in
499 the growing season. The drought treatments occurred, however, only in two out of these six growth periods throughout
500 the growing season. In addition, the first sheltered growth period generally did not show a reduced growth rate (Fig. 4),
501 as soil water stress in this period was low (Fig. 2, Table 2). With the absence of negative legacy effects, the impact of the
502 immediate drought effect of one drought stressed growth period on annual NPP was therefore diluted by the five other
503 harvests of the vegetation period (Finn et al., 2018).

504 The majority of studies that have assessed the impact of drought on grassland productivity have either assessed
505 immediate drought effects, i.e. drought resistance (Bollig and Feller, 2014; Kahmen et al., 2005; Walter et al., 2012;
506 Wang et al., 2007), or have assessed the net effects of drought on annual NPP (Gherardi and Sala, 2019; Wilcox et al.,
507 2017; Wu et al., 2011). Our study highlights that it is important to also quantify immediate and post-drought effects –
508 even in the following growing season – if the causes of drought reduced annual productivity are to be understood.

509 Effects of drought on annual ANPP of grasslands have been shown to vary, depending on the severity of the
510 experienced drought (Vicca et al., 2012; Wilcox et al., 2017), ecosystem type (Byrne et al., 2013; Gherardi and Sala,
511 2019; Sala et al., 2015; Wilcox et al., 2017), the intensity of land use (Vogel et al., 2012; Walter et al., 2012), the plant
512 functional composition (Gherardi and Sala, 2015; Hofer et al., 2016, 2017a; Mackie et al., 2018), or the biodiversity of
513 an ecosystem (Haughey et al., 2018; Isbell et al., 2015; Kahmen et al., 2005; Wagg et al., 2017). Our study shows that
514 the timing of a drought event in the growing season is also crucial for the immediate effects of a drought on grassland
515 productivity. Importantly, however, our study also shows that strong positive legacy effects can occur after rewetting and
516 that these legacy effects are even important in spring of the next year. These effects can partially compensate the strong
517 immediate drought effects and lead to relatively small overall seasonal drought effects on annual ANPP.

518 Author contributions:
519 AK and AL planned, designed and supervised the research. CH and SEH performed the experiments. CH and MS
520 analyzed the data; CH wrote the manuscript. AK, AL and MS co-wrote the manuscript.

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943

944 Tables

945 Table 1: Amount of precipitation fallen in the experiment and associated amount of excluded precipitation during the
946 sheltered drought periods in the years 2014 and 2015. Growing season precipitation refers to the time period between the
947 set-up of the shelters and the last harvest of each year.

2014				
annual precipitation (mm)	growing season precipitation (mm)	spring	summer	fall
937.1	717.9	excluded precipitation (mm)		
		167.4	308.8	241.7
		excluded precipitation annually (%)		
		17.9	33.0	25.8
		excluded precipitation in growing season (%)		
		23.2	43.0	33.7
2015				
annual precipitation (mm)	growing season precipitation (mm)	spring	summer	fall
801.9	648.5	excluded precipitation (mm)		
		296.9	204.7	149.9
		excluded precipitation annually (%)		
		37.0	25.5	18.7
		excluded precipitation in growing season (%)		
		45.8	31.6	23.1

948

949 Table 2: (a) Median of soil water potential, (b) stress intensity I_s and (c) average air temperature during the two growth
 950 periods of the drought treatments and the two post-drought growth periods as well as the corresponding periods of the
 951 rain-fed control. Post-drought values of soil water potential, stress intensity I_s and average air temperature are not
 952 displayed (n.d.) as calculating these values for the long winter period between the end of the fall treatment and the spring
 953 harvests has little meaning.

a)	Growth period	Control			Treatment		
		spring	summer	fall	spring	summer	fall
2014		MPa					
	1 st drought	-0.03	-0.41	-0.01	-0.09	-0.72	-0.73
	2 nd drought	-0.01	-0.01	-0.01	-1.44	-1.44	-1.61
	1 st post-drought	-0.41	-0.01	n.d.	-1.1	-0.05	n.d.
	2 nd post-drought	-0.01	-0.01	n.d.	-0.01	-0.02	n.d.
2015		MPa					
	1 st drought	-0.01	-0.02	-0.14	-0.08	-0.45	-0.85
	2 nd drought	-0.01	-0.25	-0.34	-0.77	-0.83	-1.34
	1 st post-drought	-0.02	-0.14	n.d.	-0.57	-0.73	n.d.
	2 nd post-drought	-0.25	-0.34	n.d.	-0.7	-0.88	n.d.
b)	Growth period	Control			Treatment		
		spring	summer	fall	spring	summer	fall
2014							
	1 st drought	0	8	0	1	13	3
	2 nd drought	0	0	0	33	33	41
	1 st post-drought	8	0	n.d.	24	9	n.d.
	2 nd post-drought	0	0	n.d.	0	0	n.d.
2015							
	1 st drought	0	0	0	0	4	13
	2 nd drought	0	0	1	14	4	34
	1 st post-drought	0	0	n.d.	0	8	n.d.
	2 nd post-drought	0	1	n.d.	14	13	n.d.
c)	Growth period	Control			Treatment		
		spring	summer	fall	spring	summer	fall
2014		°C					
	1 st drought	10.3	18.0	16.6	11.0	19.0	17.3
	2 nd drought	10.9	18.0	15.2	11.5	18.7	15.8
	1 st post-drought	18.0	16.6	n.d.	18.0	16.6	n.d.

2 nd post-drought	18.0	15.2	n.d.	18.0	15.2	n.d.
2015			°C			
1 st drought	7.1	16.2	20.3	7.6	16.9	20.5
2 nd drought	13.3	22.7	13.0	14.4	23.7	13.5
1 st post-drought	16.2	20.3	n.d.	16.2	20.3	n.d.
2 nd post-drought	22.7	13.0	n.d.	22.7	13	n.d.

955 Table 3: Summary of analysis for the effects of season, drought treatment, grass species and cultivars (grass), and their
 956 interactions on temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum, natural log-transformed) from the second growth period
 957 during drought. The inference (F - and p -values) refers to the fixed effects of the linear mixed model. df_{num} : degrees of
 958 freedom term, df_{den} : degrees of freedom of error.

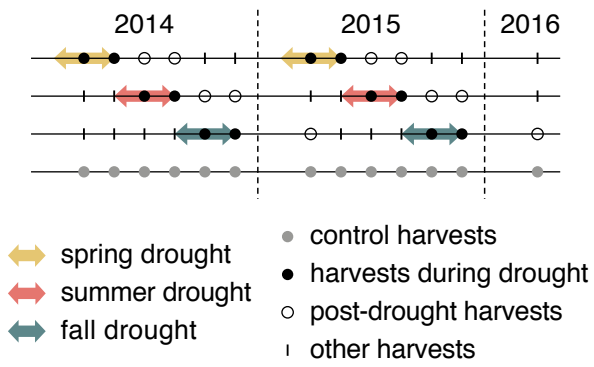
Effect	df_{num}	df_{den}	2014		2015	
			F -value	p	F -value	p
Season (spring, summer, fall)	2	36	1051.1	<0.001	2655.3	<0.001
Treatment (control vs. drought)	1	72	341.9	<0.001	642.9	<0.001
Grass	5	72	9.4	<0.001	14.2	<0.001
Season \times Treatment	2	72	25.9	<0.001	366.2	<0.001
Season \times Grass	10	36	6.8	<0.001	10.3	<0.001
Treatment \times Grass	5	72	2.9	0.018	2.0	0.094
Season \times Treatment \times Grass	10	72	3.3	0.001	3.4	0.001
Marginal R^2			0.901		0.965	
Conditional R^2			0.917		0.967	

959

960 Table 4: Summary of analysis for the effects of season, drought treatment, grass species and cultivars (grass), and their
 961 interactions on temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum, natural log-transformed) from the second post-drought
 962 growth period. See Table 3 for additional explanation.

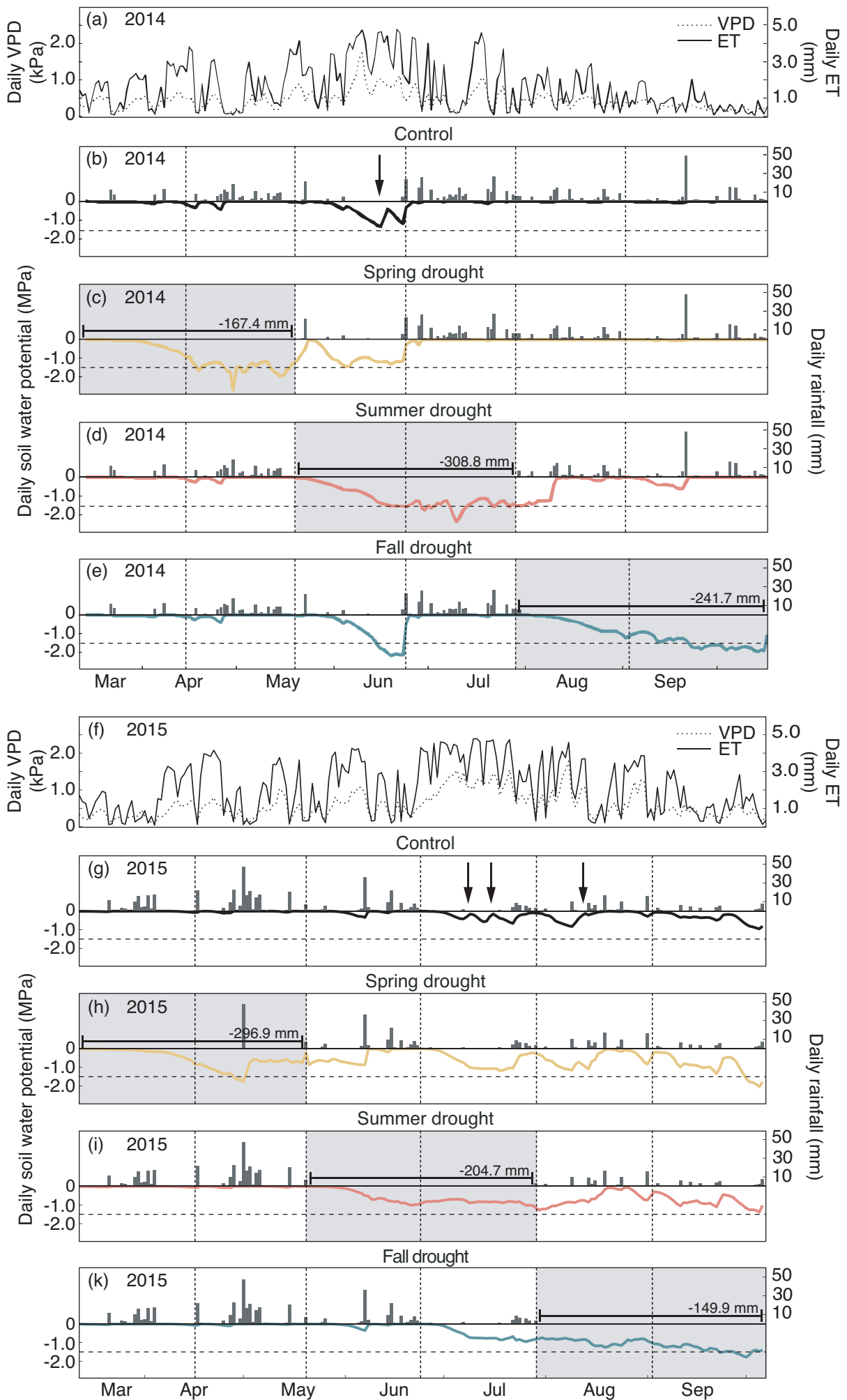
Effect	df _{num}	df _{den}	2014		2015	
			<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i>
Season (spring, summer, fall)	2	36	783.4	<0.001	1428.6	<0.001
Treatment (control vs. drought)	1	72	63.5	<0.001	25.5	<0.001
Grass	5	72	18.4	<0.001	39.4	<0.001
Season × Treatment	2	72	1.8	0.180	16.6	<0.001
Season × Grass	10	36	15.7	<0.001	9.6	<0.001
Treatment × Grass	5	72	0.9	0.517	6.4	<0.001
Season × Treatment × Grass	10	72	2.2	0.025	0.8	0.621
Marginal R^2			0.810		0.944	
Conditional R^2			0.866		0.946	

963

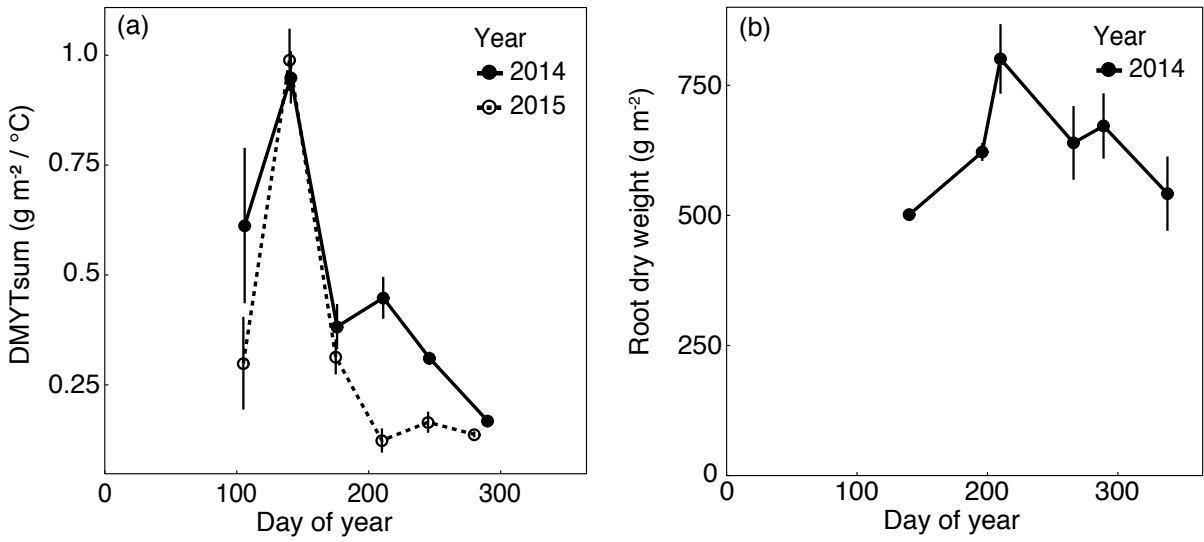


965

966 Fig. 1: Experimental design: The experiment lasted for two consecutive years (2014, 2015) with six evenly distributed
 967 harvests in both years and one additional harvest in the beginning of 2016. Arrows indicate the duration of each drought
 968 treatment (ten weeks). Each treatment was replicated four times for each of six grass species and cultivars.

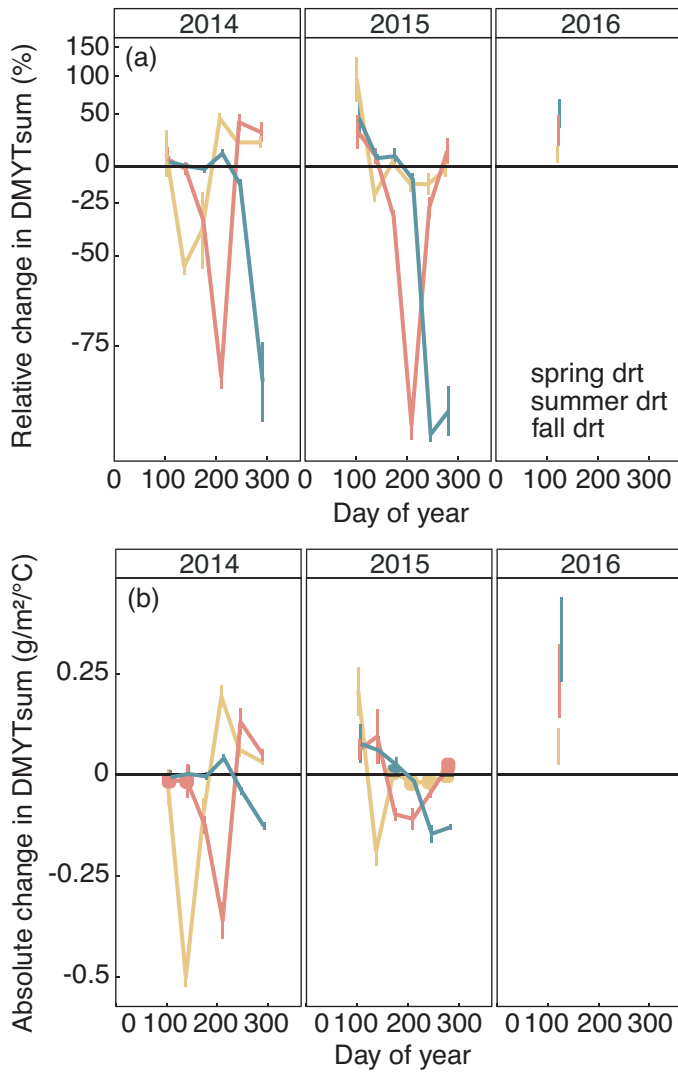


970 Fig. 2: (a, f) Daily evapotranspiration (ET) and vapor pressure deficit (VPD), (b-e, g-k) daily rainfall and soil water
971 potential (Ψ_{Soil}) in 10 cm depth over the growing seasons 2014 (a-e) and 2015 (f-k) for the control and drought treatment
972 (sensors per treatment: n=8). Grey shaded areas represent the experimental drought when rainfall was excluded. Dashed
973 horizontal line shows permanent wilting point ($\Psi_{\text{Soil}}=-1.5\text{MPa}$). Dashed vertical lines represent dates of harvest. Arrows
974 indicate watering events (in control plots only).



975

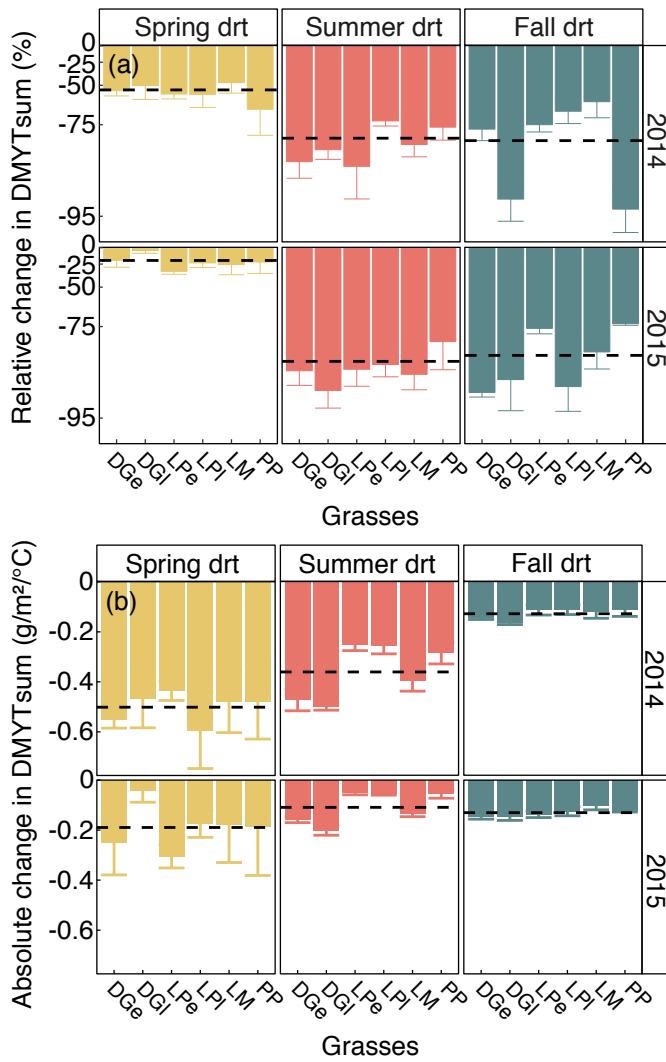
976 Fig. 3: (a) Temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum) of aboveground biomass of rain-fed control plots in 2014
 977 and 2015. Values displayed are the means across the six investigated grass species and cultivars (n=6, ± se). (b)
 978 Belowground biomass of rain-fed control plots in 2014. Values displayed are the means across the four grasses *L. perenne*
 979 early (LPe) and late (LPl) flowering and *D. glomerata* early (DGe) and late (DGl) flowering (n=4, ± se).



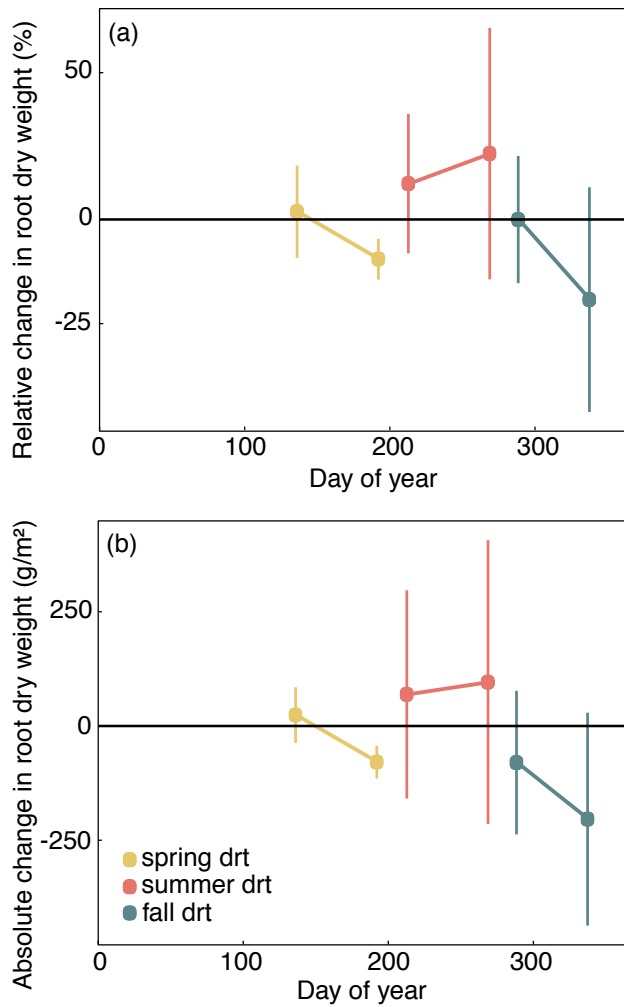
980 Fig. 4: (a) Relative (RCG) and (b) absolute (ACG) changes in temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum) of the
 981 respective drought (drt) treatment compared to the control (ctr) for 2014, 2015 and 2016. Values shown are means across
 982 all six investigated grass species and cultivars (n=6, \pm se). Values below the horizontal black line indicate reduced growth
 983 compared to the control. Values above the line indicate an increase of growth.
 984 $RCG=100 \times (DMYTsum(drt)/DMYTsum(ctr))-1$; displayed on log-scale); $ACG=DMYTsum(drt)-DMYTsum(ctr)$.

985

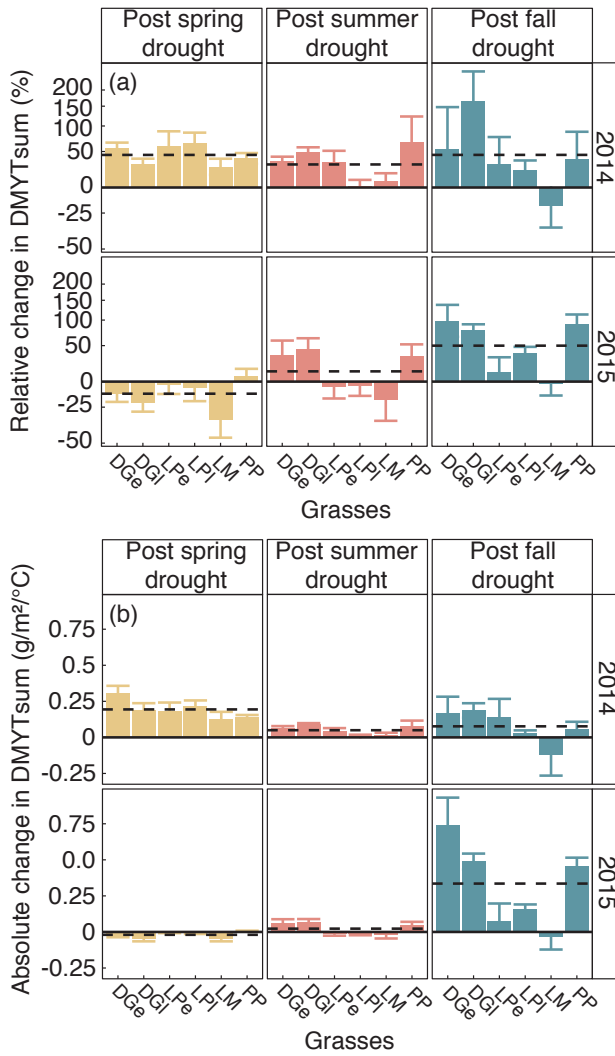
986



987 Fig. 5: (a) Relative (RCG) and (b) absolute (ACG) changes in temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum) for the
 988 second growth period (weeks six to ten) of the respective drought (drt) treatment for 2014 and 2015 for the individual
 989 grasses. Values shown are means of four replicates per species and cultivar ($n=4, \pm se$). Dashed black lines represent the
 990 means across all grasses. See Fig. 4 for additional explanation. The corresponding statistical analyses are shown in Table
 991 A1 in the Appendix.

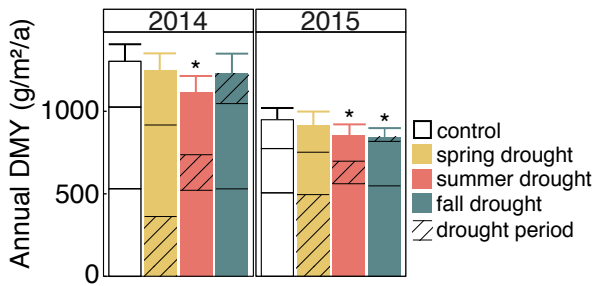


992 Fig. 6: (a) Relative and (b) absolute changes in root dry matter at the end of each drought treatment and after six to eight
 993 weeks after drought-release in 2014. Values shown are means of four grasses of *L. perenne* (LPe and LPl) and *D.*
 994 *glomerata* (DGe and DGl) each in four replicates ($n=4, \pm se$).



995

996 Fig. 7: (a) Relative (RCG) and (b) absolute (ACG) changes in temperature-weighted growth rates (DMYTsum) for the
 997 second post-drought growth period (weeks six to ten) in 2014 and 2015 after the respective drought (drt) treatment for
 998 the individual grasses. Values shown are means of four replicates ($n=4$, \pm se). Post-drought growth period of the fall
 999 drought treatment is the first growth period of the following year. See Fig. 4 for additional explanation. The corresponding
 1000 statistical analyses are shown in Table A1 in the Appendix.



001

002 Fig. 8: Annual ANPP under rain-fed control and under the three seasonal drought treatments in the years 2014 and 2015.

003 Values shown are means across all six investigated grass species and cultivars (n=6, ± se). Bars in (a) are stacked

004 according to growth in spring (bottom part), summer and fall (top part). Significant differences to the control are marked

005 with * ($p < 0.05$). The corresponding statistical analyses are shown in Table A2 in the Appendix.