



Drought and phosphorus affect productivity of a mesic grassland via shifts in root traits of dominant species

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Abstract

Aims Precipitation and soil nutrients play an important role in regulating grassland productivity. However, little is known regarding the sensitivity of grasslands to changes in water and nutrient availability and the mechanisms driving productivity responses.

Methods We examined the effects of extreme drought (65% rainfall reduction) and phosphorus fertilization on aboveground net primary production (ANPP) and plant functional traits (PFTs) of four dominant mesic grassland species in a semi-natural grassland in southeast Australia. We used piecewise structural equation modelling to determine which PFTs contribute to the treatment effects on ANPP.

Results Reduced rainfall decreased ANPP by 29% while P addition increased ANPP by 62% at the community-level. Significant drought-related reductions in ANPP were apparent for *Setaria parviflora*, while *Cynodon dactylon* was the only species exhibiting increased ANPP under P addition. There was no

interaction between rainfall and P addition. Structural equation modelling indicated specific root length was a key trait underpinning community-level ANPP responses to P; this was, however, primarily driven by a single dominant (~61% of community biomass) species (*Cynodon*).

Conclusions Our results indicate the negative impacts of drought on ANPP – driven primarily by *Setaria* – were not ameliorated by P addition. The positive effect of P addition on community-level ANPP was attributed to the response of the most dominant species, *Cynodon*, and mediated by changes in specific root length. This study highlights the importance of understanding the link between belowground traits and ANPP for predicting dominant species' response to global change drivers.

Keywords Plant functional traits · Grasslands · Phosphorus fertilization · Drought · Aboveground productivity

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Introduction

Grasslands cover nearly 40% of the terrestrial surface (LeCain et al. 2002) and hold greater than one-third of the terrestrial carbon stock (Trumper 2009). Plant productivity and associated ecosystem processes in grasslands are primarily driven by rainfall patterns, with soil nutrient availability contributing to differences among

sites with similar climates (Suttie et al. 2005; Guo et al. 2012; Fay et al. 2015). Global climate models predict reductions in the frequency of rainfall events resulting in fewer events of greater magnitude with minimal change in total precipitation (Easterling et al. 2000; Seneviratne et al. 2012; IPCC 2013), which is likely to have negative impacts on the structure and function of grassland ecosystems (Knapp et al. 2001, 2002; Fay et al. 2011; Walter et al. 2012). These changes in precipitation will result in longer dry periods between rainfall events (Knapp et al. 2008), so investigating recovery of grasslands to rainfall events after prolonged rainfall deficits will be helpful in understanding how they may respond to future conditions. The absolute size of rainfall-related reductions in plant productivity will also depend on soil fertility and vary with management practices such as fertilization. For example, Hofer et al. (2017) observed that differing soil nitrogen (N) concentrations affected productivity responses of grasses and legumes following a severe drought.

The link between ANPP and rainfall is well established for terrestrial ecosystems (Huxman et al. 2004). Reduced water availability typically leads to down-regulation of photosynthesis resulting in lower biomass accumulation at the individual and community level (Medrano et al. 2002; Ripley et al. 2010). While this relationship has been widely studied, a framework for how and why communities vary in their sensitivity (i.e. ability to maintain ANPP under altered rainfall conditions compared to ambient conditions) of ANPP to changes in rainfall, remains elusive. In southeast Australia, predicted changes in rainfall include fewer days of rain, more days with heavy rain, and a greater contribution of those heavy rain events to the total rainfall received (Evans et al. 2017). These changes will generate longer dry periods followed by short-lived wet periods, similar to the pulse-dynamics experienced in more arid ecosystems (Austin et al. 2004).

Sensitivity of grassland ANPP to drought is likely mediated by the life history strategies and associated plant functional traits (PFTs, sensu Reich 2014), of the species found within those communities. For example, species that grow rapidly typically possess low tissue densities (i.e. mass to volume or area ratios), a result of limited carbon (C) investment into long-lived structural components. Species with high density tissues, associated with high longevity and resistance to biotic and abiotic stressors, typically undergo slow growth. This spectrum of plant form and function

has been described as the “resource-use” axis (Grime et al. 1997) and represents the inevitable co-occurrence between the ability of a plant to rapidly acquire resources and the increasing rate of tissue loss/turnover. Rapid-growing species are considered acquisitive, while slow-growing plants are considered as conservative. The relative abundance of acquisitive and conservative strategies in a community will lead to either resistance (i.e. ability to withstand disturbance, such as drought) or resilience (i.e. ability to recover following disturbance) of ANPP in grassland communities (Tardif et al. 2014).

Important PFTs associated with drought resistance include traits that allow the maintenance of growth during declining soil moisture levels, such as the possession of dense tissues for water retention to maintain photosynthesis or a high capacity for soil water uptake (i.e. high root mass fraction or high root length) (Volaire et al. 2014). Important PFTs associated with drought resilience include those that support rapid re-growth when soil water becomes available again, such as high specific leaf area (leaf area to leaf mass ratio). Therefore, the sensitivity of ANPP in grasslands to drought will depend on the abundance of PFTs related to acquisitive or conservative strategies to cope with drought.

Changes in root characteristics as a result of long-term fertilization in grasslands are likely to alter plant responses to drought. For example, there is evidence that increased soil P content increases root diameter and lowers specific root length (root length to mass ratio) resulting in less resource foraging potential (see Lambers et al. 2006 for review), which could negatively affect soil water absorption. In addition, high soil P availability may limit mycorrhizal colonization (Hetrick et al. 1990) and thus negatively affect water access (Ruiz-Lozano et al. 1995; Marulanda et al. 2003), although the soil P-mycorrhizae relationship is not universal across plant and fungal taxa (Osonubi 1994; Ruiz-Lozano et al. 1995; Augé 2001). Dos Santos et al. (2006) observed enhanced photosynthetic recovery following a mild water deficit of *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. when fertilized with P. Such morphological or physiological changes in grassland plant species as a result of P addition are likely to have consequences for ecosystem resistance and resilience to drought. There is also the potential for changes in soil nutrient availability to drive shifts across the acquisitive-conservative resource-use axis at the community scale that may moderate drought impacts on the system-level.

The overall objective of this study was to investigate the recovery of a mesic grassland community that had undergone P fertilization (no P and $10 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ for four years) and reduced rainfall (65% reduction from ambient rainfall) following a summer drought period that had resulted in nearly total foliar dieback. Rainfall was applied artificially and occurred in tandem with natural events over forty days, with half the site receiving only 35% of those amounts (i.e. 65% reduction in rainfall) reflecting the most severe annual rainfall deficit for this site in the last 100 years. We used PFTs to understand potential mechanisms underlying species-specific responses. Specific questions we addressed included: (Q₁) does soil P addition alleviate the negative effects of reduced rainfall on community-level ANPP through changes in species-specific ANPP?, and (Q₂) do PFTs of dominant plant species within a community respond similarly to reduced water availability and P addition? Additionally, we asked: (Q₃) what PFTs mediate the ANPP response to rainfall and phosphorus in our mesic grassland community?

Providing a trait-based framework for these questions will help identify options for managing PFTs in grassland ecosystems to minimize the potential negative effects of anticipated future rainfall regimes. In addition, understanding how nutrient management and climate may affect grassland productivity will assist in developing more mechanistic and accurate predictions of terrestrial feedbacks on the global carbon cycle.

Materials and methods

Experimental site and design

The field site (area of 4800 m^2) was located at Western Sydney University's Hawkesbury campus (33.613586 S, 150.738047 E). Mean annual precipitation (1913–2013) is 807 mm (Australian Government Bureau of Meteorology, Richmond – UWS Hawkesbury Station, Station Number 67021) and summer (December to February) daily mean temperatures range between 18.8 and 29.4 °C, while winter daily mean temperatures range between 3.2 to 17.3 °C. The site was grazed by cattle for ~40 years until it was fenced in 2013 to exclude large herbivores. Historically, the site supported open grassy-woodlands (Benson and Howell 2002). The soil ($90.2 \pm 1.3\%$ sand, $5.6 \pm 1.4\%$ clay) is Blackendon Sand with a hardpan at ~70 cm depth across

the site. The most abundant species at the site are *Cynodon dactylon* (L.) Pers., *Setaria parviflora* (Poir.) Kerguelen, *Microlaena stipoides* (Labill.) R.Br. and *Eragrostis curvula* (Schrud.) Nees, which accounted for 61.4%, 17.3%, 11.8% and 2.8% of the plant community live ANPP (J. Chieppa, personal observation), respectively, averaged from 2014 to 2018 (total live ANPP contribution of 93.3% for all four species). All species are perennial C₄ grasses, except *Microlaena stipoides* which is a C₃ grass (Field and Forde 1990; Johnson et al. 2014). The next most abundant species, the C₃ forb *Commelina cyanea* R.Br. (Thorpe 1980), accounted for only 1.7% of live ANPP. In addition to these five species, a further 21 species were recorded – all representing <1% of the plot-level biomass – averaged from 2014 to 2018. Herein, species are referred to by their genus. During that time there were no significant changes in community composition. Therefore, while the majority of productivity at the site is comprised of non-native species, there is little evidence to suggest the community has experienced competitive exclusion (Grime 1973).

Sixteen plots (25 m^2 and a minimum 2 m apart) were established in 2014 in a factorial design including rainfall (ambient [ambient] and 65% reduced [reduced rainfall]) and phosphorus (no P addition [no P] and P addition [P+]). Four plots were fertilized in June 2014 at an annual rate of $10 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ total P equivalent using Triple Superphosphate [P_2O_5] (Ameropa Australia, Melbourne VIC 3004) as described in the NutNet protocol (Nutrient Network, www.nutnet.umn.edu/, Morgan et al. 2016). In June 2015, another eight plots had rainfall exclusion shelters installed in the middle of each plot, and four of these plots were also fertilized (first fertilization in 2015) as above. Rainfall shelters ($3 \times 3 \text{ m}$), installed year-round, use clear acrylic plastic (Perspex) to exclude 65% of ambient rainfall, a level reflecting the lowest annual rainfall at this site in the last 100 years (268 mm in 1944). Slanted shelter roofs comprise 10 evenly-spaced corrugated plastic slats (each $300 \text{ cm} \times 19.5 \text{ cm}$) with gaps (each $300 \text{ cm} \times \sim 11.7 \text{ cm}$) allowing some rainfall to reach the ground in each plot. The central ($\sim 1.5 \text{ m}^2$) area under each shelter is used for all sampling and measurements, with a buffer of $\sim 0.75 \text{ m}$ around this to ensure that edge effects are avoided. A 1-in-100 year drought was chosen as the rainfall treatment because the field site is part of the international Drought Network (DroughtNet,

<https://wp.natsci.colostate.edu/droughtnet/>). The two fertilization treatments and two rainfall treatments were crossed in a factorial design across four blocks with one replicate per block.

Interception of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) was recorded at 15 min intervals (Apogee sensors, model SQ-110, ICT International, Armidale, NSW, Australia) in one ambient and one sheltered plot; shelters intercepted <18% PAR. Soil moisture content was recorded at 5-min intervals starting November 11th 2015 using time-domain reflectometry (TDR) sensors (CS606, Campbell Scientific, Thuringowa, QLD, Australia). One TDR sensor was used in each plot and recorded the soil moisture content ($\pm 3\%$ accuracy) of the top 15 cm of soil (Supplementary Fig. 1). Soil moisture sensors were checked periodically for accuracy using a handheld soil theta probe (Delta T Devices, Burwell, UK) which possesses $\pm 1\%$ accuracy. Rainfall data were obtained from the nearby EucFACE site (Ellsworth et al. 2017).

Total soil C, N and P were measured in each plot by homogenizing four cores (10 cm depth, 5 cm diameter). Dried, sieved (2 mm) soils were ground to a fine powder (MM400 Mixer Mill Grinder, Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany). Soil was measured for total C and N content using an elemental analyzer (2400 II CHN elemental analyzer, Perkin-Elmer, USA) and total P was measured using X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (Epson 3^X, PANanalytical, EA Almelo, The Netherlands) (Table 1).

Watering regime

In the first three years of the experiment (2014 to 2017), no artificial watering events were applied to the plots;

Table 1 Soil total carbon, nitrogen, and phosphorus concentrations in the four rainfall and phosphorus treatments from March 5th 2018

Treatment	C ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$)	N ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$)	P ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$)
Ambient	14,781 \pm 4798 _a	1367 \pm 461 _a	209 \pm 11 _a
Ambient + P	14,412 \pm 1875 _a	1233 \pm 197 _a	407 \pm 76 _b
Shelter	15,721 \pm 3061 _a	1323 \pm 269 _a	226 \pm 9 _a
Shelter + P	15,811 \pm 5176 _a	1237 \pm 420 _a	467 \pm 103 _b

Letters that are not shared within a column represent significant differences from Tukey post-hoc analysis. Soil P was analysed for significant differences using Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test followed by pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test due to heterogeneity of variance

however, an unusually dry summer in 2018 necessitated supplemental water events (i.e. standing biomass was uniformly drought stressed across the site). From December 10th 2017 to February 8th 2018 (summer in the Southern Hemisphere), the site received 55 mm precipitation, with 4 mm in the last 15 days. Potential evaporation (mm) was 403.1 (bom.gov: RAAF, station 067105) over that time and mean site soil moisture content was $2.7 \pm 0.2\%$ as of early February. For reference, over a similar time period (December 10 to February 8) from 2015 to 2017 the site received 219, 350 and 146 mm, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 1). Following this long, dry (inter-pulse) period in 2018, plots were initially manually watered with 2 artificial events to assist the recovery of the vegetation which was supplemented by natural rainfall events (Fig. 1). Rainfall and soil moisture data from the previous years (Supplementary Fig. 1) indicated that two 20 mm events (~ 1 week apart) would raise soil water content in ambient plots to levels required to elicit a productivity response. The first 20 mm event was applied to ambient plots on February 8th and the second on February 13th 2018 (Fig. 1). Reduced (sheltered treatment) plots were irrigated with 65% less water than the ambient plots (i.e. 7 mm per event). Supplemental water was supplied from stored rainwater and applied at a rate of 12–18 l min⁻¹, using a tank-and-pump system, and monitored using flow-meters.

Plant productivity

Aboveground NPP data were collected on March 5th 2018 to capture peak biomass (Chieppa, *unpublished data*). Prior to rainfall inputs in February 2018, the site had primarily standing dead material from the dry inter-pulse period. In each plot, two 10 \times 100 cm rectangles (as per DroughtNet protocol) were clipped at ground level to determine live ANPP (following the watering events and natural rainfall events, Fig. 1). Sample locations were determined based on previous years' sampling positions (harvested strips had not been sampled in the previous year). In plots with rainfall shelters, material was collected from the centre 1.5 m² to ensure the selected vegetation was fully within the area of rainfall exclusion. The two samples were pooled, mixed and subsampled (30% of total sample) for sorting by species (dead material removed). Samples were dried at 60 °C for 72 h and weighed for dry mass.

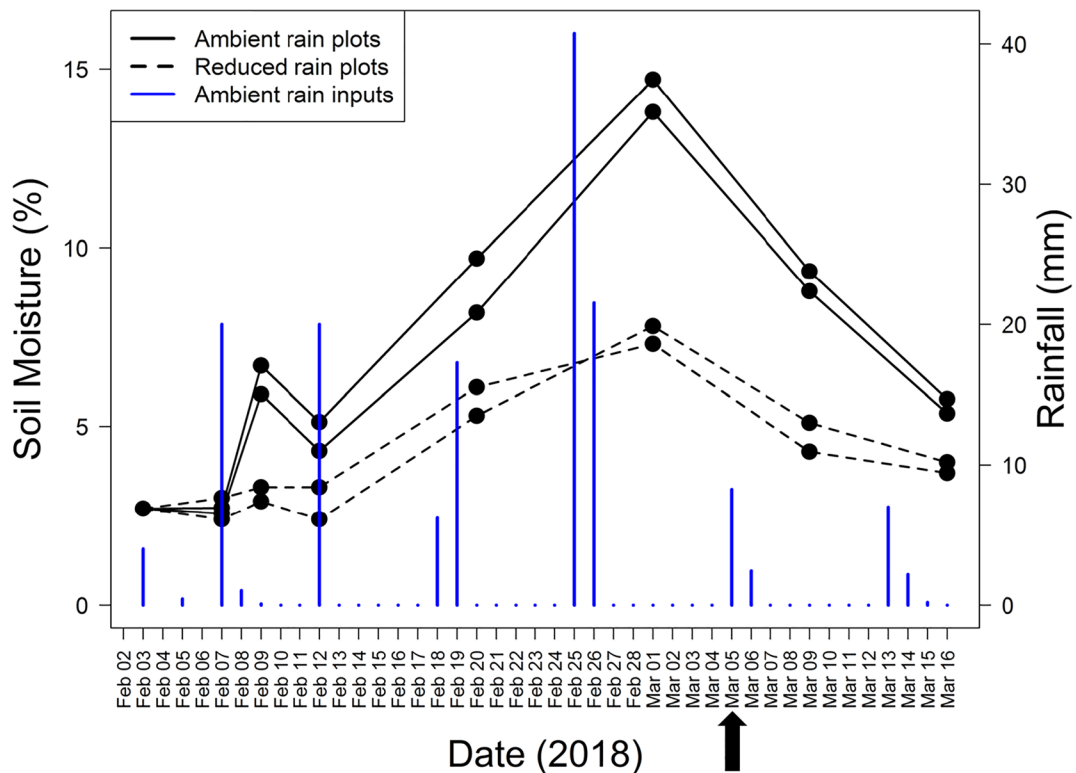


Fig. 1 Soil moisture content for ambient rainfall (solid black lines, dots indicate day of sampling) and reduced rainfall (dashed lines, dots indicate day of sampling) plots. Blue vertical lines indicate ambient rainfall inputs including two experimentally applied 20 mm events (February 7th and 12th). Reduced rain plots

received 35% of ambient rainfall amounts (i.e. 65% reduction). Aboveground net primary production harvests occurred on March 5th 2018 (denoted with black arrow). Plant functional trait data were collected March 5th to 16th 2018 on new growth

Plant functional trait collection

Functional trait data were collected from 5th to 16th March 2018 on new growth that followed the re-watering events, on unshaded, healthy (free of obvious insect damage or necrosis) individuals. Trait data were collected for the four most dominant species (mean live ANPP contribution of 93.3% from 2013 to 2018). Two individuals of each species were selected in each plot and measured for maximum height using a meter stick (Cornelissen et al. 2003). For each individual, two leaves were collected and placed in plastic vials, filled with deionized water and rehydrated for a minimum period of 6 h (Garnier et al. 2001). Water-saturated leaves were surface-dried, weighed and scanned using WinFolia (V 2015Pro, Regent Instruments Inc., Quebec, Canada) for leaf area determination. Leaves were subsequently dried at 60 °C for 72 h and weighed for dry mass. Leaf dry matter content was calculated as the ratio of dry mass to saturated mass (LDMC, mg g^{-1}). Specific

leaf area was calculated as the ratio of saturated leaf area to dry mass (SLA, $\text{mm}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$). Dried foliage was ground to a fine powder and measured for total C and N content using an elemental analyzer (2400 II CHN elemental analyzer, Perkin-Elmer, USA). Foliar C/N ratio was calculated as the ratio of total C content (%) to total N content (%) (FolCN, unitless).

Individuals were flagged to ensure above- and below-ground PFTs were collected on the same plants. Whole plants were carefully excavated (~25 cm depth) and stored in plastic bags in a cooler. Roots were kept at 4 °C until analysis, when they were gently washed over a 1-mm sieve before being scanned using WinRhizo (V 2013P, Regent Instruments Inc., Quebec, Canada). After scanning, roots were dried at 60 °C for 72 h and weighed. Specific root length was calculated as the ratio of total root length to dry mass (SRL, cm g^{-1}). Root tissue density was calculated as the ratio of root dry mass to total volume (RTD, mg mm^{-3}). Root diameter was considered as the mean diameter for the entire root

image (DIA, mm). Root branching intensity was calculated as the ratio of total root tips to total root length (RBI, branches cm^{-1}).

Data analysis

All analyses were conducted in R (R version 3.6.0, RStudio version 1.2.1335, R Core Team 2013). Data were log transformed when necessary to ensure homogeneity of variance determined using Levene's test (Katz et al. 2009). To test if P addition alleviated the community ANPP response to drought (H_1), the effects of 'rainfall', 'phosphorus', and their interaction on total ANPP (i.e. all species) and species-specific ANPP were tested using linear mixed models (*lme4* package). 'Block' was included as a random effect while 'rainfall' and 'phosphorus' were fixed. Residual degrees of freedom were estimated using Kenward-Roger Degrees of Freedom Approximation (Kenward and Roger 1997) which was also used for the estimation of P values (*lmerTest* package). *Post-hoc* Tukey 'single-step' comparison was employed when fixed effects were significant (*multcomp* package) (Newell and Douglas 2014; Bretz et al. 2016; Hothorn et al. 2017). To ensure the ANPP responses were not a result of space limitation (i.e. changes in relative productivity) we examined the effects of treatments on relative ANPP of each of the four dominant species, and the remaining species for their relative ANPP contribution, which yielded the same results as the raw ANPP values. This result indicates space-limitation had negligible effects on species and group-specific ANPP. The same analyses were completed for each of the eight PFTs included in this study to determine if PFTs of co-occurring grass species had similar PFT responses to rainfall, phosphorus, and their interaction (H_2).

Additionally, we modelled the direct effects of rainfall and phosphorus on the measured PFTs, and the direct effects of PFTs on ANPP using a piecewise structural equation model (SEM) performed in the *piecewiseSEM* package in R (Lefcheck 2016). Rather than testing the goodness-of-fit through a covariance matrix, we used Shipley's test of directed separation (Shipley 2000). Piecewise SEM is comprised of a set of linear equations which are then tested for the assumption of independence and whether there are variables missing that potentially explain the relationships across the set of linear equations (Duffy et al. 2016; Oliveira et al. 2016). The chi-square test for significance was set

at 0.05 while also considering Fisher's C statistic for goodness-of-fit (Shipley 2000). Linear equations were undertaken using the *nlme* package (Pinheiro et al. 2013; Lefcheck 2016). First, we created linear mixed-effects models to understand the relationship between 'rainfall', 'phosphorus' and their interaction on PFTs (Fig. 2, part i), then the effects of PFTs on ANPP (Fig. 2, part ii). 'Block' and 'species' were included as random effects in the original models (i.e. those encompassing all species, and multispecies models). The 'trait' component was analysed for each of the 8 PFTs (individually) to determine which traits provided a mechanistic link between treatments and ANPP (H_3). Finally, SEMs were analysed for individual species (as opposed to all species grouped together) to determine 1) if species-specific contributions were driving community-level responses; and 2) if co-occurring species possess similar PFTs underlying their productivity responses to rainfall and phosphorus.

Results

Aboveground net primary production

Reduced rainfall decreased ANPP (29%, $P = 0.018$) and Phosphorus increased total ANPP (62%, $P = 0.003$) but there was no interaction between these treatments ($P = 0.103$, Table 2 and Fig. 3). At the species level, ANPP for *Setaria* decreased under reduced rainfall ($P = 0.004$), while *Cynodon* ANPP increased with P fertilization ($P = 0.003$, Fig. 3). *Microlaena* ANPP was not significantly affected by Rainfall or Phosphorus alone. There was, however, a significant two-way interaction for *Microlaena* ANPP ($P = 0.036$), although *post-hoc* analysis indicated that treatment means were not significantly different ($P = 0.074$).

Species' functional trait responses to drought and phosphorus

Specific leaf area decreased significantly in *Eragrostis* with P fertilization; however, the change appeared minor with respect to interspecific differences in SLA (Fig. 4a, Table 2). In *Microlaena*, SLA increased under reduced rainfall (Fig. 4a). Foliar C/N and LDMC were unaffected across treatments for all species (Fig. 4b and c, respectively). Height increased with P addition for

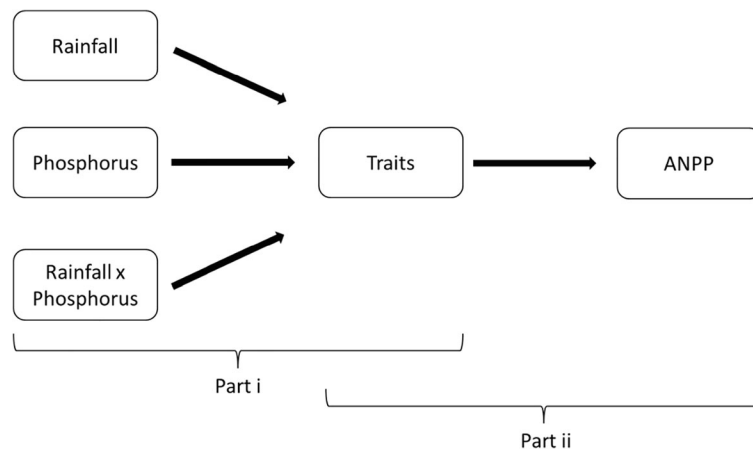


Fig. 2 Structural equation model to test the causal relationships between ‘rainfall’, ‘phosphorus’ and their interactive effects on plant functional ‘traits’ (Part i), and ‘traits’ direct effects on above-ground net primary productivity (‘ANPP’) (Part ii). In the analysis, we used each of the 8 plant functional traits (individually) within the ‘traits’ component. We included the species as a random effect

in the mixed model (i.e. multispecies model) to account for the four dominant species where we tested the causal relationships. Once significant traits were fitted to the overall model, we re-ran the model using data for each of the species individually (i.e. species-specific models) represented in the study

Cynodon and decreased for *Microlaena* under reduced rainfall (Fig. 4d).

In terms of belowground traits, phosphorus addition led to significant increases in RTD for *Cynodon* and *Eragrostis*, although it had the opposite effect in *Microlaena* (Fig. 4e). Phosphorus addition had opposing effects on SRL in *Cynodon* (decreased with P addition) and *Microlaena* (increased with P addition) (Fig. 4g). Reduced rainfall resulted in decreased SRL in *Eragrostis*. Like RTD, P addition had contrasting effects on RBI between species, with *Cynodon* increasing and *Microlaena* decreasing values of this trait under added P (Fig. 4h). Neither P addition nor reduced rainfall, or their interaction, had a significant effect on any PFTs measured for *Setaria* (Fig. 4).

Plant functional traits underlying changes in ANPP (structural equation models)

Based on the hypothesis that PFTs would mediate the effects of rainfall and phosphorus on ANPP (Fig. 2), we found SRL to be a key PFT in this relationship (Fig. 5, Table 3). Tests of directed separation indicated significant independence ($P > 0.106$). Path coefficients indicated phosphorus addition had a significant negative effect on SRL (-0.352), while increasing SRL had a negative effect on ANPP for the four species sampled (-0.347 , Fig. 5). While the overall model fit was significant, adjusted R^2 values when considering random

effects of ‘block’ and ‘species’ were greater than marginal effects (i.e. ‘rainfall’ and ‘phosphorus’) alone, indicating their importance. When using RTD in the model, we found phosphorus fertilization had a significant positive effect on RTD (path coefficient = 0.417); however, no significant relationship was observed between RTD and ANPP (Table 3). Similarly, we found reduced rainfall and phosphorus addition had independent positive effects on DIA (path coefficients = 0.327 & 0.394, respectively) with no significant relationship between DIA and ANPP. The importance of conducting species-specific SEMs was emphasized in the multispecies models in that adjusted R^2 values were greatly improved for all PFTs when using ‘species’ and ‘block’ as random effects (Table 3).

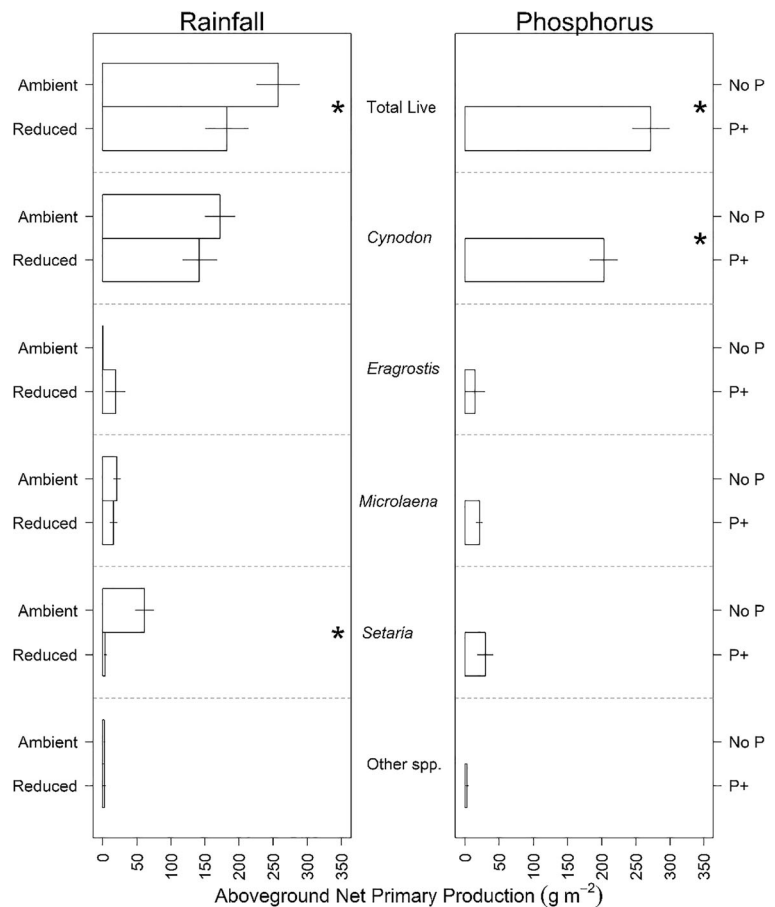
For species-specific SEMs, *Cynodon* was the primary species of interest (Table 4). Specifically, phosphorus effects on ANPP were mediated by HT, SRL and RBI in *Cynodon*. Phosphorus addition resulted in greater HT and RBI (path coefficients = 0.819 & 0.991, respectively) resulting in greater ANPP (path coefficients = 0.553 & 0.781, respectively). For SRL, as observed in the multispecies SEM, phosphorus fertilization resulted in lower SRL of *Cynodon* (path coefficient = -0.793), while increasing SRL had a negative effect on ANPP (path coefficient = -0.746). The interactive effects of rainfall and phosphorus had a significant effect on *Cynodon*’s FolCN, and phosphorus alone affected its RTD; however, these changes in PFTs were unrelated

Table 2 Summary statistics for the effects of rainfall (ambient vs reduced) and phosphorus (no P added vs. P added) treatments, and their interaction, from linear mixed models

Response Variable	Group/Species	Rainfall		Phosphorus		Rain*Phosphorus	
		F-value	P value	F-value	P value	F-value	P value
ANPP	Total Live	8.42	0.018*	16.16	0.003**	3.30	0.103
	<i>C. dactylon</i>	1.63	0.234	14.85	0.004**	1.64	0.232
	<i>E. curvula</i>	1.41	0.266	0.43	0.529	0.55	0.479
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.59	0.461	0.90	0.367	6.10	0.036*
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	15.80	0.003**	0.14	0.719	0.12	0.733
	Non-dominant	0.00	0.972	0.68	0.431	1.44	0.260
SLA	<i>C. dactylon</i>	0.02	0.883	1.19	0.279	0.00	0.987
	<i>E. curvula</i>	0.788	0.377	7.04	0.009**	0.30	0.583
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	10.37	0.002**	0.07	0.794	0.47	0.497
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	0.03	0.855	3.59	0.062	2.78	0.099
FolCN	<i>C. dactylon</i>	1.48	0.235	3.36	0.079	2.89	0.101
	<i>E. curvula</i>	0.27	0.606	0.04	0.846	0.16	0.696
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.02	0.888	0.10	0.752	0.10	0.756
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	0.00	0.955	0.48	0.494	0.16	0.694
LDMC	<i>C. dactylon</i>	0.09	0.769	1.97	0.168	0.41	0.525
	<i>E. curvula</i>	1.68	0.202	0.74	0.395	0.50	0.483
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.02	0.887	1.26	0.271	0.00	0.942
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	1.57	0.217	0.382	0.540	1.13	0.293
HT	<i>C. dactylon</i>	0.03	0.869	42.55	< 0.001***	1.43	0.237
	<i>E. curvula</i>	0.08	0.782	0.00	0.946	2.27	0.138
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	10.3	0.003**	0.00	0.890	0.687	0.413
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	2.62	0.111	0.00	0.977	1.01	0.318
RTD	<i>C. dactylon</i>	1.91	0.207	38.74	< 0.001***	0.616	0.456
	<i>E. curvula</i>	1.34	0.277	14.03	0.005**	0.00	0.973
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.98	0.356	5.95	0.045*	0.05	0.823
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	0.00	0.979	0.86	0.377	0.07	0.803
DIA	<i>C. dactylon</i>	1.83	0.214	1.14	0.319	0.14	0.717
	<i>E. curvula</i>	2.38	0.157	2.82	0.127	0.70	0.425
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.76	0.411	0.22	0.650	2.83	0.129
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	0.03	0.860	1.23	0.297	0.02	0.901
SRL	<i>C. dactylon</i>	1.05	0.338	59.84	< 0.001***	0.32	0.590
	<i>E. curvula</i>	8.75	0.016*	2.99	0.118	0.08	0.784
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	0.30	0.599	13.17	0.008**	0.11	0.753
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	0.02	0.902	1.26	0.292	0.13	0.727
RBI	<i>C. dactylon</i>	0.71	0.428	161.04	< 0.001***	0.07	0.802
	<i>E. curvula</i>	3.73	0.086	0.14	0.718	1.17	0.308
	<i>M. stipoides</i>	4.54	0.069	15.35	0.005*	0.63	0.448
	<i>S. parviflora</i>	4.24	0.070	0.11	0.748	2.67	0.119

Bolded rows are those with significant effects for ease of reading. *Abbreviations* ANPP aboveground net primary productivity ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$), SLA specific leaf area ($\text{mm}^2 \text{mg}^{-1}$), FolCN foliar C to N ratio, LDMC leaf dry matter content (mg g^{-1}), HT height (mm), RTD root tissue density (mg mm^{-3}), DIA root diameter (mm), SRL specific root length (cm g^{-1}), RBI root branching intensity (branch #·cm). Nominator degrees of freedom are 1 in all cases. Denominator degrees of freedom (ddf) were 9, estimated using Kenward-Rogers Degrees of Freedom Approximation. Asterisks next to P values denote level of significance (*** < 0.001, ** < 0.01, * < 0.05)

Fig. 3 Live aboveground net primary production by rainfall (left panel) and phosphorus (right panel) treatments, separated for: all species (Total Live), dominant species (*Cynodon dactylon*, *Eragrostis curvula*, *Microlaena stipoides*, *Setaria parviflora*) and non-dominant species (Other spp.). Plots with asterisks represent significant differences at $P < 0.05$. Error bars represent standard errors



to ANPP. Similarly, HT in *Microlaena* and RTD in *Eragrostis* were significantly affected by treatments, but these had no significant relationship with ANPP.

Discussion

In this study, we addressed the potential impact of drought and soil P addition on ecosystem functioning (ANPP) and associated PFTs of the dominant species in a mesic grassland. A 65% reduction in rainfall reduced ANPP by 29% while P addition increased total ANPP by 62%, a response primarily driven by a single, dominant grass species (*Cynodon*). Studies involving P (Bennett and Adams 2001) or NPK (Morgan et al. 2016) fertilisation elsewhere in Australia have reported a lack of ANPP response to fertiliser addition, although Morgan et al. (2006) observed a fertiliser-driven shift in the relative cover of native and non-native species across four grasslands. The lack of interaction between

nutrient and drought treatments in our study indicates that P addition did not alleviate the negative effects of drought on grassland productivity. This is in line with Yu et al.'s (2009) observation for a semi-arid grassland in inner Mongolia, although contrasts with the positive response of ANPP to P fertilization during drought reported in dominant grasses in North American prairies (La Pierre et al. 2016) and other sites outside of Australia (Lee et al. 2010; Yahdjian et al. 2011). It is important to note that rainfall intensity and frequency can govern the rate of N mineralization (Homyak et al. 2017) and P transformation (e.g. sorption/desorption, Tiessen 2008), which may restrict plant uptake of nutrients under drought conditions (Alam 1999; Hu and Schmidhalter 2005).

Fertilizing grasslands may lead to declines in species richness (DiTommaso and Aarssen 1989; Gough et al. 2000; Clark and Tilman 2008). However, this was not observed under P addition in our study over 4 years (Chieppa unpublished data), although it has been found

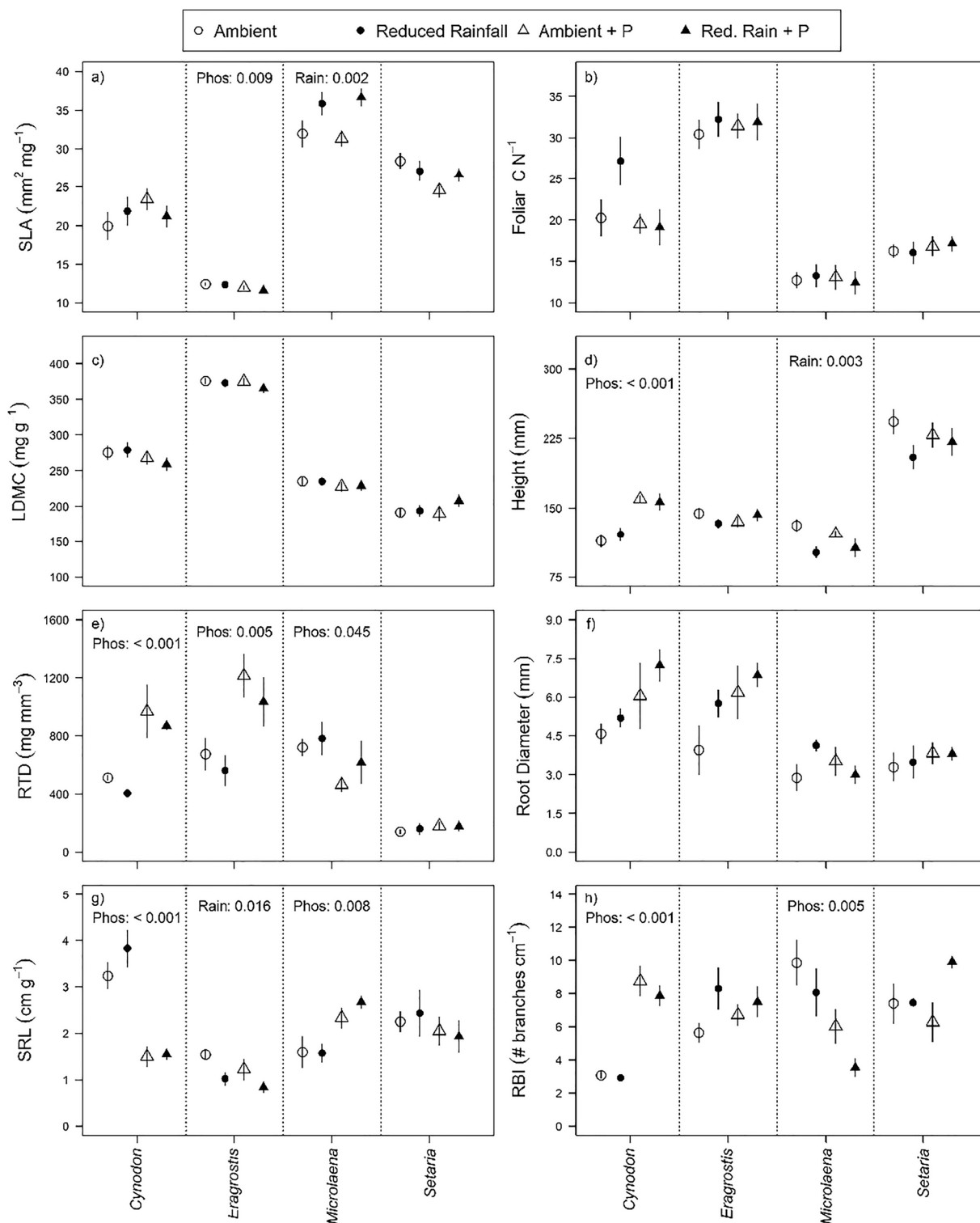


Fig. 4 Plant functional traits in different treatments for the four dominant species. Abbreviations labelling y-axes represent (panel a) specific leaf area, (c) leaf dry matter content, (e) root tissue density, (g) specific root length, and (h) root branching intensity. “Phos” denotes the P value resulting from linear mixed models (LMMs) for the phosphorus treatment. “Rain” denotes the P -value resulting from LMMs for the rainfall treatment. P values below 0.05 are considered significant; however, P values between 0.05 and 0.10 are also reported for clarity. Error bars indicate standard errors

in other studies (Crawley et al. 2005; Hejman et al. 2007; Ceulemans et al. 2014). The link between fertilization and declining species richness may reflect competition and ultimate displacement of weaker species by superior competitors for the newly available resource (McKane et al. 2002; Lambers et al. 2004; Clark and Tilman 2008; Gazol et al. 2016). Few studies have observed shifts in PFTs (i.e. changes in functional diversity, but see Bernhardt-Römermann et al. 2011), which could be occurring even in the absence of species turnover (i.e. hierarchical response framework, Smith et al. 2009). Recently, the importance of root PFTs was highlighted in understanding community compositional changes induced by N enrichment (Zheng et al. 2019), yet no studies to our knowledge have examined the consequences of changes in PFTs for alternative abiotic

disturbances such as drought. Under future rainfall regimes, the key will be selecting appropriate PFTs which both underpin responses to drought (Griffin-Nolan et al. 2018) and additional abiotic agents such as fertilization.

We found that ANPP of multiple plant species in a single community did not respond similarly to reduced water availability and P addition. In fact, at the species level, only *Setaria* decreased ANPP under reduced rainfall and only *Cynodon* increased ANPP with P addition. *Setaria* was the species most sensitive to extreme drought in our system, perhaps because it did not adjust PFT values in response to low soil water availability, which accounted for the decline in productivity under dry conditions (Albert et al. 2010). In contrast, the positive effect of P addition on ANPP of *Cynodon*, and on four of its eight measured traits, suggests that species that readily acclimate to changes in resource-availability may do best under variable environments. Fort et al. (2015) found acquisitive strategies in legumes were associated with reduced negative effects of water and P limitation, but this was not observed in *Cynodon*. Specifically, the most conservative species (*Eragrostis*), was observed to have no negative effects of drought or positive responses to P addition. P deficiency may decrease root hydraulic conductance per root surface area

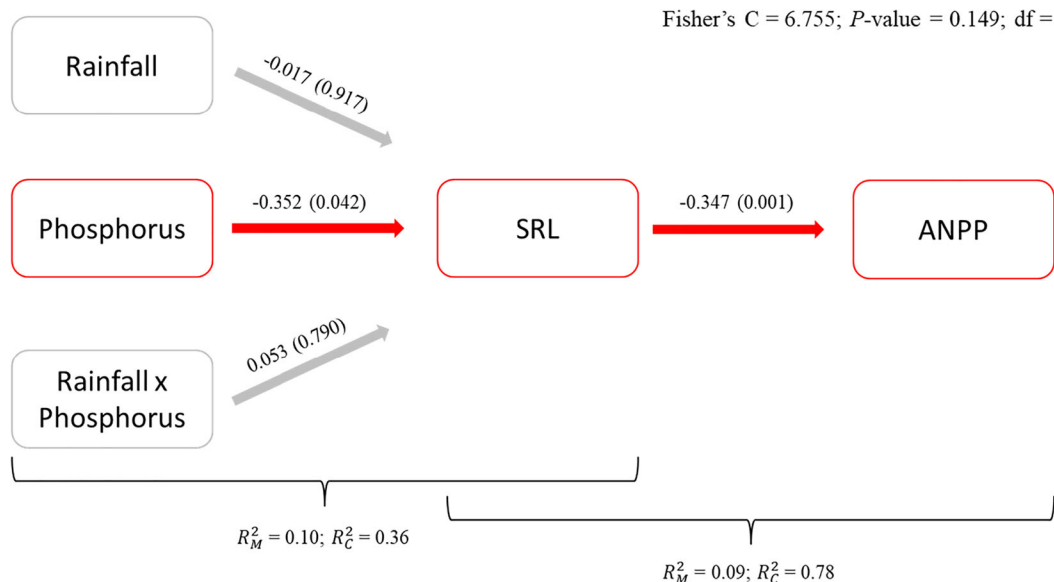


Fig. 5 Structural equation model results for the four dominant species measured, examining the effects of ‘rainfall’, ‘phosphorus’ and their interaction on specific root length (‘SRL’) and the relationship between ‘SRL’ and aboveground net primary production (‘ANPP’). Grey boxes and arrows indicate non-significant pathways while red boxes and arrows indicate significant pathways.

Numbers next to arrows indicate standardized path coefficients and P values (in parentheses). The overall model fits are included in the top right corner. Adjusted R^2 with (conditional, R_C^2) and without random effects (marginal, R_M^2) for each section of the model are included in the brackets below the variables

Table 3 Goodness-of-fit and path significance from the structural equation model (SEM) analysis

Trait	Goodness-of-fit			df	Rainfall	Phosphorus	Rainfall*Phosphorus	Trait		ANPP		
	df	Fisher's C	P value		P value	P value	P value	R_M^2	R_C^2	P value	R_M^2	R_C^2
LDMC	4	10.982	0.027	33	0.811	0.716	0.577	0.01	0.89	0.365	0.13	0.63
SLA	4	11.052	0.026	33	0.796	0.496	0.565	0.03	0.58	0.056	0.00	0.57
FolCN	4	10.709	0.030	33	0.663	0.783	0.192	0.01	0.89	0.277	0.08	0.60
HT	4	7.775	0.100	33	0.490	0.116	0.775	0.06	0.53	0.234	0.05	0.66
SRL	4	6.755	0.149	33	0.917	0.042*	0.790	0.10	0.36	0.001*	0.09	0.78
RTD	4	7.655	0.105	33	0.940	0.006*	0.405	0.12	0.55	0.106	0.04	0.61
DIA	4	11.193	0.024	33	0.037*	0.016*	0.391	0.15	0.47	0.155	0.15	0.47
RBI	4	10.001	0.040	33	0.316	0.111	0.665	0.09	0.09	0.316	0.01	0.61

Goodness-of-fit *P* values below 0.05 are not good fits through violations of independence. The significance of 'rainfall', 'phosphorus', or their interaction are denoted with asterisks in the 6th, 7th, and 8th columns. The adjusted R^2 values from the mixed models of their effects on the specified functional 'trait' are included without random effects (marginal, R_M^2) while the conditional R^2 values (R_C^2) include the random effects of 'species' and 'block'. The same data, including *P* values, are included for the relationship between the 'traits' and aboveground net primary productivity ('ANPP'). Bolded rows indicate SEMs which adhere to all criteria and are significant ($\alpha = 0.05$) for both parts of the model

(Trubat et al. 2006), which could have negative implications for drought tolerance. It has been observed that legumes, grasses and small trees have very different responses to P and drought, suggesting very different plant strategies to drought and fertilization based on plant functional type (Baldocchi et al. 2004; Volaire 2008; Onipchenko et al. 2012). In our study, the intensity of the drought applied (i.e. the percentage of irrigation/rainfall which was reduced) was severe and expected to elicit declines in ANPP in the community (Beierkuhnlein et al. 2011; Jung et al. 2014; Knapp et al. 2015; Copeland et al. 2016). However, this grass-dominated ecosystem was found to be very resistant to drought, perhaps reflecting historic exposure, and associated plant community adaptation, to high inter-annual variability in rainfall.

Overall, we found strong differences amongst our dominant grassland species with respect to PFT responses to reduced rainfall and P addition. While many traits were unaffected by drought or P addition, we observed contrasting directional responses of PFTs across species. For example, SRL increased with P addition in *Microlaena*, but decreased in *Cynodon*; this is not unexpected since differences in grass root response to P addition are often species-specific (Fort et al. 2014). While we attribute these changes to the

direct effects of P addition, we did not investigate the indirect effects of P addition which could potentially alter PFT responses (e.g. intransitive dynamics or complementarity, Soliveres et al. 2015). For example, with limited niche space for root exploitation, a direct effect of P addition on SRL of *Cynodon* could result in a shift in root traits of *Microlaena*, via competition. Alternatively, potential unique P requirements between *Microlaena* and *Cynodon* could result in opposite responses to fertilization (Lambers et al. 2006). Others have observed P uptake to be directly related to root traits (namely specific root hair cylinder volume) which has consequences for productivity responses to fertilization in both grass and legumes (Haling et al. 2016). These results highlight the complexity of trait-environmental relationships in (semi-)natural plant communities and warrants further study, ideally through the use of coordinated experiments to determine how site-specific characteristics may influence PFTs underpinning drought and fertilization responses (Fraser et al. 2013; Ploughe et al. 2018).

For the whole community, SEM indicated decreasing SRL was associated with greater ANPP; however, upon further inspection, this was only true for the most abundant species, *Cynodon*. We can assume that the response of *Cynodon*, which represented >50% of community

Table 4 Goodness-of-fit and path significance from the structural equation model analysis of individual plant functional traits for specific species

Species	Trait	Goodness-of-fit			df	Rainfall	Phosphorus	Rainfall*Phosphorus	Trait		ANPP		
		df	Fisher's C	P value					P value	P value	P value	R_M^2	R_C^2
C. dactylon	HT → →	4	6.598	0.159	9	0.675	0.019	0.755	0.61	0.61	0.047	0.32	0.32
		Path Coefficients:				NS	0.819	NS	Path Coef:			0.553	
	SRL → →	4	1.086	0.896	9	0.171	0.002	0.355	0.86	0.86	0.004	0.58	0.58
		Path Coefficients:				NS	-0.793	NS	Path Coef:			-0.746	
	RBI → →	4	2.994	0.559	9	0.869	< 0.001	0.541	0.90	0.92	0.002	0.63	0.63
		Path Coefficients:				NS	0.991	NS	Path Coef:			0.781	
	FOLCN →	4			9	0.253	0.698	0.036	0.22	0.82	0.320	0.09	0.09
		Path Coefficients:				NS	NS	-0.575	Path Coef:			NS	
	RTD →	4			9	0.516	0.016	0.973	0.67	0.67	0.337	0.08	0.08
		Path Coefficients:				NS	0.781	NS	Path Coef:			NS	
M. stipoides	HT →	4			9	0.004	0.059	0.035	0.26	0.28	0.838	0.01	0.01
		Path Coefficients:				-0.852	NS	0.207	Path Coef:			NS	
E. curvula	RTD →	4			9	0.582	0.026	0.693	0.56	0.56	0.269	0.10	0.10
		Path Coefficients:				NS	0.757	NS	Path Coef:			NS	

Only models with significant paths are included. Significant *P* values and associated path coefficients are bolded. Arrows and bars under each trait indicate if the first (treatment effects on traits) and second paths (trait effects on ANPP) were significant. Bolded values indicate significance at $\alpha = 0.05$

ANPP, and its PFTs, will likely dictate community-level responses to future change (i.e. the biomass-ratio hypothesis, Grime 1998). Interestingly, greater ANPP was associated with more conservative values of SRL (less root length per mass) as more acquisitive species typically have higher productivity (Reich 2014). It is possible that greater resource availability led to a more conservative resource-use strategy which manifested as reduced tissue water loss in roots (i.e. thicker and denser roots preventing dehydration to drier soils). Thus, having reduced water loss from roots would limit mortality (Huang and Wilkinson 2000; Huang and Gao 2000) and healthier root systems would allow for greater ANPP in the field; however, this was not tested directly

(Manschadi et al. 2006). Alternatively, changes in the ratio of root to shoot biomass can have knock-on effects on aboveground productivity under drought (Akram et al. 2007). Because of the heterogeneous nature of mesic grasslands, determining belowground biomass by species is difficult, although this aspect would clearly benefit from further investigation. Other important PFTs relating to water and nutrient uptake, such as rooting depth and root mass fraction, could explain why some species performed better than others under reduced rainfall (Voltaire 2008; Comas et al. 2013; Voltaire et al. 2014). However, such measures are difficult to undertake in mixed field communities, are highly destructive, and not suited to long-term experiments.

RBI and HT were also important traits underlying productivity and significantly affected by P addition in *Cynodon*. The changes in RBI, however, were counter-intuitive given P addition was associated with more conservative SRL values (low length to mass ratio) yet RBI values were more acquisitive (high number of branches per unit length) with added P. It should be noted that root traits are multidimensional (Kramer-Walter et al. 2016) with aspects of surface area, length, branching and tissue density indicating unique aspects of the functionality of roots as organs (Fitter 1991; Bardgett et al. 2014). While complex, their use as key indicators of grassland responses to drought and fertilization will be crucial under future climate and management scenarios.

Conclusion

We assessed the response of a mesic grassland to severe drought, the role of P fertilization in alleviating drought, and the mechanisms (PFTs) underpinning plant responses. Drought generated a reduction in ANPP for one of the four most abundant species, and the addition of P increased ANPP for a different species, but P addition did not alleviate the negative drought effect, despite significant effects of P on PFTs. Interspecific and contrasting shifts in PFT values of co-occurring perennial grassland species create uncertainty regarding the use of PFTs to explain community responses to drought and fertilization. We found SRL to be an important trait underlying response of ANPP in the community; however, this could be mostly attributed to the single dominant species, *Cynodon* with shifts towards more conservative SRL values from P addition resulting in greater ANPP. While we observed no interactive effects of drought and P fertilization on PFTs or ANPP, we hypothesize that SRL may be a key PFT underpinning future drought sensitivity of grasslands given its importance to the acquisition and conservation of water.

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Author contributions JC conceived the ideas, acquired data, analysed data and wrote the manuscript. UN, DT and SP designed

the experimental site and contributed critically to manuscript development.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflicts of interest for the work presented

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