

## 1 Title: Drought legacies and ecosystem responses to subsequent drought

- **Running head:** Drought legacy review
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#### 11 Abstract

12 Climate change is expected to increase the frequency and severity of droughts. These events, which 13 can cause significant perturbations of terrestrial ecosystems and potentially long-term impacts on 14 ecosystem structure and functioning after the drought has subsided are often called 'drought legacies'. 15 While the immediate effects of drought on ecosystems have been comparatively well characterized, 16 our broader understanding of drought legacies is just emerging. Drought legacies can relate to all 17 aspects of ecosystem structure and functioning, involving changes at the species and the community 18 scale as well as alterations of soil properties. This has consequences for ecosystem responses to 19 subsequent drought. Here, we synthesize current knowledge on drought legacies and the underlying 20 mechanisms. We highlight the relevance of legacy duration to different ecosystem processes using 21 examples of carbon cycling and community composition. We present hypotheses characterizing how 22 intrinsic (i.e. biotic and abiotic properties and processes) and extrinsic (i.e. drought timing, severity, and frequency) factors could alter resilience trajectories under scenarios of recurrent drought events. 23 We propose ways for improving our understanding of drought legacies and their implications for 24 25 subsequent drought events, needed to assess the longer-term consequences of droughts on 26 ecosystem structure and functioning.

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- 28 Key words: drought legacy, drought recovery, drought response, lagged effects, legacy duration, post
  - drought state, recurrent drought, resilience

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## 1. Introduction

31 Climate change has been and will likely be causing a significant increase in the severity and frequency of drought events (Trenberth et al. 2014; Spinoni et al. 2018; IPCC 2021) with strong repercussions on 32 ecosystem processes and services (Ciais et al. 2005; Reichstein et al. 2013; Thonicke et al. 2020; 33 34 Vicente-Serrano et al. 2020; Bastos et al. 2020; Feeley et al. 2020). In addition to the concurrent effects 35 of drought events on ecosystems, manifold changes can persist after the drought has subsided (Frank et al. 2015). These post-drought effects are commonly referred to as "drought legacies" (Vilonen et al. 36 37 2022) and have been demonstrated for various aspects of ecosystem structure and functioning. 38 Drought legacy effects have been associated with altered carbon (C) cycling (Scott et al. 2010; Craine 39 et al. 2013; Xie et al. 2020; Kannenberg et al. 2020; Wei et al. 2022; Liu et al. 2022), nitrogen (N) cycling (DeVries et al. 2012; Legay et al. 2018; DeLong et al. 2019), growth (Anderegg et al. 2015b; Wu et al. 40 41 2018; Zhao et al. 2020; Gazol et al. 2020), phenology (Kang et al. 2018; Sippel et al. 2018; Peng et al. 2019; Berwaers et al. 2019; Zeng et al. 2021; Hoover et al. 2021), species composition (Stampfli et al. 42 43 2018; DeBoeck et al. 2018; Griffin-Nolan et al. 2019; Winkler et al. 2019; Stampfli & Zeiter 2020), 44 herbivory (Gutbrodt et al. 2011) as well as soil physicochemical properties (Goebel et al. 2011; 45 Sánchez-García et al. 2019). Drought legacies have also been associated with increased plant mortality 46 (Bigler et al. 2007; Trugman et al. 2018; Hartmann et al. 2018; Sippel et al. 2018; Zhou et al. 2019; 47 Hammond 2020), and with reduced plant defence against pests and pathogens (Jactel et al. 2012; 48 Wiley et al. 2016; Trugman et al. 2021).

All these biotic and abiotic legacies from species to ecosystem scale are summarized below and referred to as legacies in intrinsic factors. In addition to these intrinsic factors a range of extrinsic factors, including drought *timing*, drought *severity* (intensity and duration), and drought *frequency* can affect drought legacies.

Although the relevance of drought legacies for a longer-term perspective on ecosystem resilience (the
resistance to and recovery from subsequent drought events (Lloret *et al.* 2011; Ingrisch & Bahn 2018)
has been increasingly acknowledged in recent years (Anderegg *et al.* 2020; DeSoto *et al.* 2020; Canarini

*et al.* 2021; Hahn *et al.* 2021), our understanding of drought legacies and the underlying processes is
still restricted to a few case studies or specific aspects of plant and ecosystem functioning, such as
radial tree growth (see Fig. S1) (Kannenberg *et al.* 2019b; Kannenberg *et al.* 2020; Gazol *et al.* 2020).
Hence, we still lack a clear understanding of how drought legacies alter the resilience of ecosystems to
subsequent drought events. This is of particular relevance given that drought frequency is likely to
increase in the coming decades (Wang *et al.* 2021b; IPCC 2021).

62 This review aims to i) synthesize our current understanding of drought legacies and the underlying 63 mechanisms from species and communities to ecosystem (biotic and abiotic) scale and ii) summarize 64 the legacy duration of previously documented drought legacy responses. Furthermore, we iii) develop 65 hypotheses as to how drought legacies could influence the resilience trajectories of ecosystem 66 responses to subsequent drought events.

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### 2. Defining and characterizing drought legacies

69 Drought legacies are commonly defined as any alterations of an ecosystem state or processes that 70 occur after a drought has subsided (Sala et al. 2012; Rousk et al. 2013; Walter et al. 2013; DeBoeck et 71 al. 2018; Griffin-Nolan et al. 2018; Buttlar et al. 2018; Delgado-Balbuena et al. 2019; Vilonen et al. 72 2022). They refer to changes of intrinsic factors after a disturbance event (see material legacies (Johnstone et al. 2016)) compared to evolutionary adaptions to historical disturbance regimes (see 73 74 information legacies (Johnstone et al. 2016)). Drought legacies can involve both reductions and 75 enhancements in response parameters (Sala et al. 2012; Frank et al. 2015; Griffin-Nolan et al. 2018). 76 Next to the term 'drought legacy' several other terms have been used in the literature, including

'lagged effects' (Zhao *et al.* 2018), 'stress imprint' (Bruce *et al.* 2007), 'stress memory' (Walter *et al.* 2013; Fleta-Soriano & Munné-Bosch 2016) or 'drought memory' (Walter *et al.* 2011; Ogle *et al.* 2015;
Canarini *et al.* 2021) (for a broader discussion see also (Vilonen *et al.* 2022)).

In this paper we use the term drought legacy to describe any shift in ecosystem properties or processes
after a drought has subsided (Fig. 1). Thus, drought legacies include both the recovery phase after the

drought has ended and the post-recovery phase, in the case of incomplete recovery (Fig.1). The recovery phase is characterized by the rate of recovery (arrow 2) following the maximum impact of the drought event (arrow 1). The post-recovery phase starts when the rate of recovery levels off (arrow 3), and the recovery is complete (yellow trajectory, no legacy) or incomplete, i.e. the baseline has been shifted (red and blue trajectories, legacy). These shifts can occur on all organizational scales, including species-, community- and / or ecosystem (Fig. 2).

Given that the ecosystem state changes dynamically during the recovery phase, the most coherent approach to quantifying and comparing drought legacies would be to compare the ecosystem postrecovery state with the baseline state (see below) (Fig. 1). However, this may be difficult to achieve in cases when recovery rates are difficult to quantify, e.g. due to insufficient time resolution for assessing recovery dynamics or to intrinsic factors which recover very slowly, e.g. community properties which can take years or decades to recover fully (Albertson & Weaver 1944; Stampfli & Zeiter 2004).

To date, different baselines of an ecosystem state, such as pre-disturbance level (Gazol et al. 2020), 94 95 control (Yahdjian & Sala 2006; Arredondo et al. 2016; DeBoeck et al. 2018; Mackie et al. 2019), or 96 predicted level (Anderegg et al. 2015b; Peltier et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2018; Delgado-Balbuena et al. 97 2019) have been used to characterize drought legacies. We suggest a characterization of drought 98 legacies post-drought or, if possible, post-recovery via the legacy duration (arrow 5) and the legacy 99 size (deviation from the pre-drought, control, or the predicted baseline (arrow 4)). While we 100 acknowledge that pre- and post-drought baselines can fluctuate strongly over time (Bahn & Ingrisch 101 2018), we suggest that such a characterization can enhance comparability of drought legacies across 102 ecosystems and response parameters in future studies, especially when combined with a consistent 103 design of drought studies (Slette et al. 2019; Munson et al. 2020).

Given that drought legacies may have strong repercussions on ecosystem responses to subsequent droughts, we argue that a drought legacy should consider the whole timespan during which the ecosystem state and its responses to environmental conditions, including a subsequent drought, are altered by a drought event (see also section 5).

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- 3. Drought legacies and the underlying mechanisms at species-, community- and ecosystem scale

Drought can have long lasting effects on intrinsic factors from species-, community-, to ecosystem scale 111 112 (see Fig. 2 and below). The legacy size and duration of these intrinsic factors can be affected by a range 113 of extrinsic factors, including drought timing, drought severity (intensity and duration), and drought 114 frequency. For example, drought timing can alter growth legacies in forests, such that the legacy size 115 is higher in the later (Kannenberg et al. 2019a) or drier part of the growing season (Huang et al. 2018). 116 In grasslands, the effects of drought timing on the size of growth legacies increase the later the drought 117 occurs in the season (Hahn et al. 2021). Also drought intensity impacts the legacy size, which increases 118 with increasing drought intensity (Yahdjian & Sala 2006; Kannenberg et al. 2019a). Furthermore, a 119 longer drought duration was observed to also enhance legacy duration (Jiao et al. 2021). Moreover, 120 there is increasing evidence that ecosystem responses to drought intensity and duration are nonlinear 121 during drought (Dannenberg et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2021; Wang et al. 2021a; Felton et al. 2021), with 122 potential consequences for drought legacies, though these remain to be explored.

123 In the following, we provide an overview of post-drought legacies and the underlying mechanisms from 124 species- to community- and ecosystem scale (broadly summarized in Fig. 2).

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## 126 Species scale

127 Drought can lead to a range of **structural** changes on the species scale. For example, in grasslands 128 drought can decrease the tiller and stolon density, with consequences for ecosystem productivity 129 (Reichmann *et al.* 2013; Reichmann & Sala 2014; Delgado-Balbuena *et al.* 2019). Moreover, drought 130 can reduce belowground bud density (Qian *et al.* 2022) as well as reproductive output with 131 consequences for grassland community composition (Zeiter *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, drought can 132 increase the number of seeds and decrease the number of leaves (Metz *et al.* 2020). Moreover, 133 drought can induce a shift towards resource-conservative root traits such as lower specific root length (DeVries *et al.* 2016) and can increase community-weighted plant traits such as specific leaf area and
leaf N content, which reflects a shift towards communities with drought avoidance and escape
strategies (Griffin-Nolan *et al.* 2019). After recovery from drought, increased shoot, root, and tissue N
concentrations of herbaceous species have often been observed, which is probably due to higher postdrought N availability (see also ecosystem section below) (Roy *et al.* 2016; Ingrisch *et al.* 2018; DeLong *et al.* 2019). In forests, drought can lead to structural changes such as a decrease in active xylem area,
as well as needle shedding or canopy loss (Peltier & Ogle 2019).

141 On a **physiological** level, drought can alter the growth rate of species across plant functional types, 142 and as a result, legacy effects can be positive or negative (DeVries et al. 2012; Darenova et al. 2017; 143 Itter et al. 2019; Peltier & Ogle 2019; Kannenberg et al. 2019b; Kannenberg et al. 2020; Li et al. 2020; 144 Zhao et al. 2020). Drought legacies of tree ring studies predominantly suggest negative effects on 145 growth (Anderegg et al. 2015b; Kannenberg et al. 2020). In trees, post-drought reductions of root 146 functioning (Peltier & Ogle 2019) and an altered stomatal sensitivity to soil and plant water status 147 (Grossiord et al. 2018) have been observed. Furthermore, drought can alter molecular mechanisms 148 such as pathways of signalling metabolites, transcription factors, or epigenetics involving modifications 149 in DNA, histone, or chromatin organization (Bruce et al. 2007; Ding et al. 2012; Sahu et al. 2013; 150 Kinoshita & Seki 2014; Crisp et al. 2016; Alves et al. 2020), with consequent structural changes, 151 including short-term changes such as the pigment composition of leaves (Fleta-Soriano & Munné-152 Bosch 2016).

Drought legacies have also been associated with altered **phenology** both of herbaceous and woody species, e.g. earlier end-of-season senescence leading to a shortened growing season (Kang *et al.* 2018; Peng *et al.* 2019; Berwaers *et al.* 2019; Hoover *et al.* 2021). These effects are especially pronounced in regions with generally low water availability (Peng *et al.* 2019). Prior-season drought (Zeng *et al.* 2021) and spring drought (Kang *et al.* 2018) can lead to a delay in the onset of spring growth and hence the start of the growing season, with negative impacts on summer growth rates (Zeng *et al.* 2021). Finally, drought can advance the flowering date and increase the flowering duration. The phenological

response can vary depending on the species and the diversity of a stand with potential long-term
effects on reproductive fitness (Jentsch *et al.* 2009).

162 **Plant mortality** is a widespread drought legacy with significant consequences for the community and 163 the ecosystem scale. Mortality can occur both during (Choat et al. 2018; Jung et al. 2020) and after a 164 severe drought event (Bigler et al. 2007; Anderegg et al. 2013; Frank et al. 2015; Anderegg et al. 2015a; 165 Schlesinger et al. 2016; Trugman et al. 2018; Stampfli et al. 2018; Sippel et al. 2018; Harrison et al. 166 2018; Brodribb et al. 2020; Trugman et al. 2020; Senf et al. 2020). Tree mortality has frequently been 167 associated with hydraulic failure, but also C limitation has been discussed as a possible cause in some 168 cases (Gessler et al. 2017; Adams et al. 2017; Choat et al. 2018; McDowell et al. 2020; McDowell et al. 169 2022). Additionally, lags in soil water replenishment following drought (van der Molen et al. 2011) can 170 enhance species mortality (Goulden & Bales 2019). Furthermore, drought often leads to reduced plant 171 defence against herbivory, pests, and pathogens, which increases the risk of plant mortality in trees and herbaceous species (Gutbrodt et al. 2011; Jactel et al. 2012; Gaylord et al. 2013; Anderegg et al. 172 173 2015a; Kolb et al. 2016; Wiley et al. 2016; Schlesinger et al. 2016; Trugman et al. 2021).

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## 175 <u>Community scale</u>

176 Drought can exert legacy effects on plant communities by reducing species richness (Stampfli et al. 2018), abundance of specific species (Jung et al. 2014; Hoover et al. 2014), and diversity (Xu et al. 177 178 2017), but drought has also been shown to increase functional diversity (Griffin-Nolan et al. 2019). In 179 grassland exposed to drought, plant composition shifted towards more stress-resistant slower growing 180 species (Wilcox et al. 2021). Results of single case studies performed in prairie (Hoover et al. 2014) or 181 with alpine grassland mesocosms (DeBoeck et al. 2018) suggest that grasses are probably more 182 drought resistant than forbs. In addition to different resistance to drought, community reorganization 183 towards grass domination can also be driven by altered plant-plant interactions, such as competition, 184 with resource-acquisitive grasses dominating at the expense of resource-conservative forbs (Stampfli 185 et al. 2018). In contrast, droughts may favour an increase of forbs, which have been suggested to

outperform grasses in their capacity to recruit from seed (Stampfli & Zeiter 2004). In grasslands where
shrubs are present, they can replace perennial grasses as a response to drought due to their more
extensive root systems permitting access to deeper water (Winkler *et al.* 2019).

In forests, community reorganization following drought can lead to shifts in dominant tree species and
their associated above- and belowground communities, involving a.o. shifts towards more drought
tolerant and xeric communities and related traits, and in savannas shifts towards non-woody
vegetation (Suarez & Kitzberger 2008; Anderegg *et al.* 2013; Clark *et al.* 2016; Trugman *et al.* 2020;
Batllori *et al.* 2020; Brodribb *et al.* 2020). Community shifts can also be species-unspecific, as e.g.
mortality is often related to tree density and tree size, irrespective of the species involved (McDowell *et al.* 2020; Brodribb *et al.* 2020; Trugman *et al.* 2020; Cui *et al.* 2022).

196 Drought and rewetting have strong impacts on soil communities. Drought can alter species 197 composition and generally tends to decrease the abundance and the richness of soil fauna (Lindberg et al. 2002; Lindberg & Bengtsson 2006; DeVries et al. 2012; Coyle et al. 2017). It has recently been 198 199 shown to also cause legacies in the microbial community composition (Kaisermann et al. 2017; 200 Meisner et al. 2018; Meisner et al. 2021; Canarini et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2022; Evans et al. 2022; Xi et al. 201 2022). Drought was observed to promote fungi and to reduce bacteria (Fuchslueger et al. 2014; Preece 202 et al. 2019) and bacterial networks (DeVries et al. 2018). Drought can also alter microbial community-203 level traits, but the magnitude and persistence of such drought legacies is under debate (Wang & 204 Allison 2021). Drought effects on plant-soil feedbacks, which can strongly alter above- and 205 belowground communities, will be discussed in the ecosystem section.

Drought-induced changes on the community scale can also be driven by **invasive species**. Generally, when invasive species are already established, they tend to negatively affect plant communities through a loss in plant diversity, shifted community composition, and a dampened recovery capacity of natives from drought (Fahey *et al.* 2018; Vetter *et al.* 2020; Xu *et al.* 2022). In invaded grassland plant communities, drought was observed to impact growth of invasive species less (Meisner *et al.* 2013) or more (Valliere *et al.* 2019) compared to native species. When negatively affecting plant

growth of invasives, drought can lead to a long lasting reduction in the presence of invasive plants post
drought (Kelso *et al.* 2020). The effects of growth and reproduction can be weakened by higher
germination rates of seeds of invasive compared to natives species (Valliere *et al.* 2019).

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216 <u>Ecosystem scale</u>

217 Drought can lead to a range of legacies on the ecosystem scale, which can be driven by changes on
218 species or community scale and can feed back to these scales.

219 Drought can induce pronounced legacy effects on ecosystem carbon (C) cycling, e.g. through legacy 220 effects on plant biomass (Yang et al. 2018; Wigneron et al. 2020) and biomass production. Drought 221 legacy effects on aboveground net primary production (ANPP) can be positive (Griffin-Nolan et al. 222 2018) or negative (Sala et al. 2012; Petrie et al. 2018). Enhanced post-drought growth can compensate 223 for the growth reductions during drought and stabilize overall biomass production (Stampfli et al. 2018; Mackie et al. 2019; Hahn et al. 2021). In grasslands, drought legacy effects on ANPP have been 224 225 associated with tiller recruitment (Reichmann et al. 2013; Reichmann & Sala 2014), changes in the 226 composition of species and functional groups (Hoover et al. 2014; DeBoeck et al. 2018; Gao et al. 2021), 227 as well as changes in nutrient availability (DeLong et al. 2019; Mackie et al. 2019). Drought can also 228 lead to increased (Berwaers et al. 2019) or decreased carbon uptake and respiration (Delgado-Balbuena et al. 2019), and affect soil respiration (Dong et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2022). Post-drought 229 230 changes in microbial biomass or in microbial community-level traits can alter soil C cycling such as soil 231 respiration (Dong et al. 2021; Evans et al. 2022; Liu et al. 2022) and soil organic matter decomposition 232 (Wang & Allison 2021). Furthermore, drought can have a positive or negative legacy effect on water 233 use efficiency (WUE), that is the amount of C taken up relative to the amount of water lost (Yang et al. 234 2016; Huang et al. 2017; Ji et al. 2021). Generally, post-drought changes in WUE last longer for forests 235 (up to one year) than for shrubland and sparse vegetation (up to four months) (Ji et al. 2021). In the 236 longer term, changes in plant species composition after a drought event towards drought-tolerant 237 species has been suggested to increase C and water cycling (Craine et al. 2013).

238 Drought and rewetting can alter N cycling and the short-term dynamics of soil N availability. Upon 239 rewetting, large pulses in nutrient release and N mineralization can occur (Birch 1958; Manzoni et al. 240 2012; Leitner et al. 2017; Schimel 2018; van Sundert et al. 2020). This higher availability of N post-241 drought was observed to enhance recovery of plant growth in grasslands (Schrama & Bardgett 2016; 242 Roy et al. 2016; Ingrisch et al. 2018; Karlowsky et al. 2018), thereby reducing potential subsequent 243 plant growth legacies. Indeed, an increase in soil N following drought was found to be accompanied in 244 grasslands by higher plant growth and in consequence biomass (DeVries et al. 2012; Legay et al. 2018; 245 Mackie et al. 2019; DeLong et al. 2019). In forests, the higher nutrient supply post drought can enhance 246 tree recovery, which strongly depends on the re-establishment of root functions as well as root 247 damage and mortality (Gessler et al. 2017). Furthermore, drought-induced effects on roots as well as 248 leaf senescence can affect nutrient status and nutrient demand post-drought (Schlesinger et al. 2016). 249 For example, N uptake under drought can be reduced (Joseph et al. 2021) and detrimental impacts of drought on K availability can reduce tree resistance to subsequent drought (Touche et al. 2022). 250

251 Post-drought N availability can also be altered by changes in microbial communities (Meisner et al. 252 2018). For example, drought can select for microbial communities with a lower capacity to immobilize 253 N which leads, together with lower root N uptake, to higher soil N concentration (DeVries et al. 2016). 254 Also drought-related changes in fungi / bacteria ratios can result in altered ecosystem N and C cycling 255 (DeVries et al. 2018) and induce possible feedback to plants and alter plant-plant interactions 256 (Kaisermann et al. 2017). Furthermore, drought legacy effects on N cycling in grasslands can be induced 257 by a decrease in soil microbial activity post-drought, as microbial enzymatic activities are highly 258 sensitive to drought (Acosta-Martinez et al. 2014; Legay et al. 2018).

A major driver of drought legacies in grasslands is related to drought-induced changes in **plant-soil feedbacks** (PSFs), that is the interactions between plants, soil organisms, and abiotic soil factors, which lead to altered plant composition and performance and have cascading effects on ecosystem properties (van der Putten *et al.* 2013; Preece & Peñuelas 2016; van der Putten *et al.* 2016; Peguero *et al.* 2019; DeVries *et al.* 2019; Pugnaire *et al.* 2019; Williams & DeVries 2020; Crawford & Hawkes 2020;

264 Buchenau et al. 2022). Drought can influence PSFs e.g. via drought-driven changes in the composition 265 of plant species, whose roots interact with the respective symbionts, decomposers, and pathogens 266 (van der Putten et al. 2016; Pugnaire et al. 2019). Similarly, drought can influence PSFs via changes in belowground community composition (van der Putten et al. 2016; Pugnaire et al. 2019). Thereby, 267 268 drought-induced changes in microbial communities can alter the direction and intensity of PSFs with 269 consequences for ecosystem properties, e.g. by positively or negatively affecting plant growth 270 (Kaisermann et al. 2017). Drought effects on PSFs can be mediated both in terms of quantity and 271 quality by altered plant inputs in soil, such as litter and rhizodeposition (Kuzyakov 2002; Sánchez-272 Cañizares et al. 2017; Karlowsky et al. 2018; Sasse et al. 2018; DeVries et al. 2019; Williams & DeVries 2020). Drought-induced changes of rhizodeposition strongly depend on species identity and drought 273 274 intensity (Preece & Peñuelas 2016) and can alter nutrient availability through shifts in fungi / bacteria 275 ratios, causing shifts in plant composition (Preece & Peñuelas 2016; Peguero et al. 2019). Drought also reduces litter quality and thereby leads to lower mineralization rates. The resulting deceleration of 276 277 nutrient cycling and the enhancement of fungal dominance in the microbial community in turn can 278 alter plant community composition and favour more drought adapted species (Pugnaire et al. 2019). 279 Finally, drought legacies not only affect PSFs between species but also within species, by favoring 280 genotypes within plant species that develop less negative feedback and thereby decreasing intraspecific diversity (Crawford & Hawkes 2020). 281

282 Drought legacies have been shown to lead to reduced leaf area index in grasslands and forest 283 (Kannenberg et al. 2019b; Jiao et al. 2021) and to affect the canopy structure (Beloiu et al. 2022), 284 driven by changes in species abundance and composition, e.g. in forests subjected to wide-spread 285 mortality (Saatchi et al. 2013; Senf et al. 2021). Changes in canopy structure can alter abiotic 286 ecosystem properties such as light availability and microclimate, with consequences for the 287 composition and biodiversity of the understory as well as nutrient and C cycling (Kane et al. 2011; 288 Royer et al. 2011; Anderegg et al. 2012; Anderegg et al. 2013). Drought can have a positive or negative 289 legacy effect on soil moisture in grasslands, lasting up to a half year post-drought (Robinson et al. 2016;

290 Reinthaler et al. 2021; Hoover et al. 2021). Positive soil moisture legacies can be driven by a post-291 drought decrease of species with low drought resistance, which can reduce community-level water 292 demand (Hoover et al. 2021). Drought can also cause legacy effects on soil properties, by altering the 293 chemical and physical soil structure. Drought has been shown to increase the soil water repellency 294 (Goebel et al. 2011; Sánchez-García et al. 2019), decrease soil moisture retention and soil moisture 295 storage capacity (Robinson et al. 2016). It can also change aggregate stability (Goebel et al. 2005) with 296 cascading effects on ecosystem functioning. For example, an increase in soil water repellency caused 297 by drought can reduce the mineralization of soil organic matter by microbes with potential 298 consequences for plant productivity and plant community structure (Goebel et al. 2011).

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## 4. Drought legacy durations

To date few studies have explicitly looked into drought legacy duration, which has been best documented for C cycle processes. Here, we synthesize drought legacy duration post-drought for a range of C cycle parameters and for community properties, which both strongly depend on the plant functional types and the specific response parameter studied (Fig. 3).

In grasslands, most C-cycle related legacies return to pre-disturbance level roughly within the first year
after the drought and can last several years for forests (Fig. 3a). This is in line with the suggestion by
Wu *et al.* (2018), and Zhang *et al.* (2022) that drought legacies tend to be longer for forest and woody
species compared to grasslands and non-woody/herbaceous species.

Overall, flux parameters return to pre-disturbance levels within the first year (Fig. 3a, see also (Schwalm *et al.* 2017; Zhao *et al.* 2020)), while biomass- and growth-related legacies tend to persist long afterwards (Fig. 3a). This supports the emerging notion of a post-drought decoupling of temporal dimensions of response parameters in forests such as C uptake, tree rings, and NDVI (Kannenberg *et al.* 2019b; Gessler *et al.* 2020; Gazol *et al.* 2020; Kannenberg *et al.* 2020), showing that the legacy duration of different C cycle response parameters is highly variable.

315 Furthermore, we observed that legacies in community properties, such as species abundance, 316 composition, and richness tend to last longer in woody species and understory compared to grasslands 317 (see Fig. 3b). Moreover, the drought legacy effects on community properties tend to last longer than 318 those related to C cycle parameters (Fig. 3). For example, while biomass recovered after drought in a 319 grassland experiment (Fig 3a), species composition still remained affected after one (Hoover et al. 320 2014) and two years (DeBoeck et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2021) (Fig. 3b). Following severe drought events, 321 community properties often do not return to pre-disturbance levels (Fig. 3) (Hillebrand & Kunze 2020). 322 Overall, the temporal aspect of drought legacies and their dependencies are still poorly understood 323 across response parameters and plant functional types. This is especially relevant for long-term 324 legacies that are related to community properties (Hillebrand & Kunze 2020) (see Fig. 3b). By 325 conducting continuous measurements long after the drought has subsided and thereby revealing when 326 deviations of response parameters return to the baseline, studies could provide insight into the duration and cumulative magnitude of drought legacies. Based on the scarce available evidence we 327 328 suggest that to fully quantify drought legacies, observations of up to five and fifteen years may be 329 required for grasslands and forests, respectively.

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## 5. Effects of drought legacies on responses to subsequent drought events

While legacies after a drought event have been increasingly studied in recent years, we still lack a profound understanding of how these drought legacies alter the resilience (i.e. resistance and recovery (*sensu* Ingrisch & Bahn 2018) of ecosystems to subsequent droughts (or other extreme events, see e.g. Zscheischler et al. 2018). Drought legacy effects on ecosystem responses of a subsequent drought can relate to all ecosystem properties and processes (intrinsic factors, IFs) outlined above. In the following, we develop hypotheses about the main determinants of the resilience trajectories of an IF to subsequent drought events.

First, we hypothesise that the resilience of an IF to a subsequent drought depends on its *post-recovery state* following the antecedent drought event. Relations can be manifold and depend on the particular

341 IF, hence for simplicity we only present one option here, showing the highest resilience when the IF342 reveals no legacy from the previous drought (Fig. 4).

343 Second, we suggest that the resilience of an IF to a subsequent drought depends on the *adaptation* 344 and *degradation* of all further IFs of the ecosystem (Fig. 2, Fig. 4). We hypothesize that post-drought 345 legacy adaptation/ degradation of all further IFs of an ecosystem can shift the response of an IF to a 346 subsequent drought towards higher/ lower resilience, respectively (Fig. 4, 5). Importantly, different IFs 347 can be affected by adaptations and degradations to different degrees (Fig. 5).

348 On the species scale, **adaptations** imply that species become more adjusted to drought, which can 349 moderate the impact of a subsequent drought event. For example, a reduced xylem conduit size in 350 trees can reduce the risk of hydraulic failure and thereby increase resistance to a subsequent drought 351 (Gessler et al. 2020). Proline, a water retaining compound that can regulate osmotic adjustments, was 352 found to be adaptively enriched in grassland species under recurrent drought conditions (Li et al. 2022). The observed higher water retention and concurrent higher stomatal conductance can maintain 353 354 plant functioning during subsequent droughts (Li et al. 2022). Furthermore, an adaptation towards 355 higher photosynthetic rate was observed under recurrent drought and during its recovery (Alves et al. 356 2020). Moreover, a higher root biomass as a legacy from a previous drought can increase resistance 357 and recovery to a new drought (Legay et al. 2018). It is known that molecular mechanisms such as 358 accumulation of proteins and transcription factors, as well as epigenetic changes can change plant 359 responses to subsequent stress (Bruce et al. 2007; Jacques et al. 2021). For example, drought was 360 suggested to result in epigenetic changes leading to structural changes (Fleta-Soriano & Munné-Bosch 361 2016) or enhanced transcription of stress-response genes (Ding et al. 2012), thereby increasing plant 362 resistance to a subsequent drought. These mechanisms of 'drought memory' (Walter et al. 2013) were 363 hypothesized to be an underlying cause for increased resistance of plant biomass during subsequent drought (Walter et al. 2011; Backhaus et al. 2014). 364

Long-term adaptations on the community scale have been documented for all plant functional types.
 Such adaptations frequently involve increased dominance of drought adapted species (Hoover *et al.*

2014; DeBoeck et al. 2018; Xu et al. 2021; Wilcox et al. 2021) and lead to corresponding shifts in the 367 368 community-level plant traits (Trugman et al. 2020; Evans et al. 2022). They have also been shown to 369 involve increases in functional diversity (Griffin-Nolan et al. 2019). Such community-level adaptations can moderate the impact of a subsequent drought (Coleman & Wernberg 2020) (see Fig. 5). For 370 371 example, an increase of trees with drought-tolerant hydraulic traits can buffer forest productivity 372 during subsequent droughts (Trugman et al. 2020). Moreover, an adaptation of soil biota and 373 processes can dampen the negative effect of a subsequent drought on native plant species while 374 reducing the success of invasive species (Meisner et al. 2013). It has recently also been shown that 375 multiple recurrent droughts can alter soil microbial community composition and enhance soil 376 multifunctionality during subsequent drought events (Canarini *et al.* 2021).

377 On the ecosystem scale, increased N availability upon rewetting can favour resistance to and recovery 378 from subsequent drought (Legay et al. 2018). Recurrent drought events have been shown to enhance such rewetting-induced N release both in the lab (Miller et al. 2005; Lu et al. 2019) and in the field 379 380 (DeVries et al. 2012). However, several studies also suggest that under recurrent droughts this 381 rewetting effect can be dampened (Borken & Matzner 2009; Yu et al. 2014; Kaisermann et al. 2017; 382 Sánchez-García et al. 2019), which might lead to an overall reduction of N availability in the ecosystem, 383 as rewetting can fail to balance the decreased N mineralization rates during drought events (Borken & Matzner 2009) or lead to enhanced N leaching (Sardans et al. 2020; Krüger et al. 2021). 384

385 In addition to drought-induced adaptations, degradations of intrinsic factors can have an important 386 influence on ecosystem responses to subsequent droughts. In fact, it has been suggested that an increasing amount of land area globally may be degraded by aridity in the long-term due to shifts in 387 388 precipitation regimes (Berdugo et al. 2020). Increased aridity can hamper the recovery after a drought 389 event and lead to more extreme responses to recurrent drought events. Degradation can involve both 390 plant- and soil-related parameters such as plant cover and soil aggregate stability (Berdugo et al. 2020). Furthermore, legacies in fungi/ bacteria ratio can decrease the ability of soil microbial communities to 391 392 maintain the same functions under recurrent drought (Preece et al. 2019). Degradation can also imply

reduced biodiversity (Jung *et al.* 2014; Hoover *et al.* 2014; Xu *et al.* 2017; Stampfli *et al.* 2018), which is an important stabilizing factor for ecosystem productivity and both increases the resistance to (Isbell *et al.* 2015) and recovery from drought (van Ruijven & Berendse 2010; Kreyling *et al.* 2017; Craven *et al.* 2018). Moreover, negative effects on seedbanks can affect plant communities and could reveal themselves after a long time, as they are often not reflected in the aboveground vegetation (Basto *et al.* 2018).

399 Finally, we hypothesize that the resilience trajectories of an IF to a subsequent drought event are 400 strongly influenced by extrinsic factors, including drought timing, frequency, and severity (Fig. 4). Next 401 to seasonality effects, timing matters for the degree of the recovery from the previous drought (Fig. 402 4). Overall we expect that resilience is lower when the species, community, or ecosystem property or 403 process has not yet recovered from the previous drought (Fig. 1, S1 and S2) and higher when it is fully 404 recovered (Fig. 1, S3) (Mitchell et al. 2016; Schwalm et al. 2017; Peltier & Ogle 2019; Szejner et al. 2020; Hoover et al. 2021). Furthermore, resilience to a subsequent drought is probably decreased by 405 406 drought frequency, i.e. the number of consecutive drought events. Several studies in fact support the 407 notion that a higher drought frequency decreases both resistance (Bose et al. 2020; Xu et al. 2021) and 408 recovery (Gao et al. 2018; Peltier & Ogle 2019; Szejner et al. 2020; Jiao et al. 2021; Serra-Maluquer et 409 al. 2021). However, the opposite, i.e. a higher drought frequency leading to a higher resilience, has 410 also been shown (Yao et al. 2022) (see also the above section on adaptations shaping the resilience to 411 a subsequent drought event). Also, increasing drought severity is expected to decrease resistance to 412 and recovery from a subsequent drought (Fig. 4). This hypothesis is based on studies of single drought 413 events, where longer duration hampered resistance (Buttlar et al. 2018; Reynaert et al. 2020), and 414 higher intensity reduced resistance (Xu et al. 2019) and recovery (Schwalm et al. 2017). Given the 415 broad lack of evidence on the interactive effects of intrinsic and extrinsic factors, experimental and 416 observational studies are urgently needed to improve our understanding of ecosystem responses to 417 recurrent drought events.

418

#### 419 6. Conclusion and Outlook

420 In times of increasing severity and frequency of drought events in many parts of the world, it is essential to not only assess the concurrent effects of droughts, but to understand the lasting 421 422 consequences such extreme events may have on ecosystems. In our review we have provided a broad 423 overview of drought legacies and the underpinning mechanisms from species to community and 424 ecosystem scale. To date, quantitative analyses of drought legacy responses have mainly focused on 425 aboveground growth-related parameters and some community attributes, suggesting that the legacy 426 duration can differ vastly for different parameters and different plant functional types. For a more in-427 depth understanding of drought legacies on ecosystems it will be important for future studies to 428 extend the observational timescale and explicitly consider a range of interrelated biotic and abiotic 429 factors, including above-belowground interactions. To advance the field, it will be essential to 430 illuminate the particular role of adaptation and degradation of properties and processes across scales in determining ecosystem resilience to subsequent drought events. Furthermore, future studies should 431 432 consider potential interactions of drought legacies with other global change factors such as warming, 433 elevated CO<sub>2</sub>, N deposition and land-use changes, as well as interactions with other climate extremes, 434 such as heatwaves and heavy precipitation events. Accounting for these potential interactions and the 435 implications of drought legacies for subsequent drought events is essential for understanding and 436 projecting the long-term consequences of a changing climate for ecosystems.

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1031 Fig.1: Post-drought trajectories of the recovery and post-recovery phase after a drought event. The 1032 recovery phase is characterized by the rate of recovery (arrow 2) following the maximum impact of the 1033 drought event (arrow 1). The post-recovery phase starts when the rate of recovery is zero (arrow 3), 1034 irrespective of whether the recovery has been complete (yellow trajectory) or has resulted in a shifted 1035 baseline, the latter reflecting an immediate drought legacy (red and blue trajectories). In the post-1036 recovery phase drought legacies can be characterized by the deviation from the pre-drought baseline 1037 (arrow 4) and the legacy duration (arrow 5). Starting timepoints (S1-S3) of a potential subsequent 1038 drought event (see Fig. 5) are indicated as dotted grey arrows.

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Fig. 2: Drought legacies on species, community and ecosystem scale. Colours refer to autotrophic
 (green), heterotrophic (brown) and abiotic (blue) ecosystem components, respectively. White arrows
 indicate interactions of legacies across properties within a given scale (cross-scale interactions not
 shown for simplicity). See Fig. S1 for the number of papers published on the respective topics.

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Fig.3: Drought legacies durations of a) carbon-cycle parameters and b) community properties (species abundance, composition, and richness) for different plant functional types and ecosystems, respectively. Abbreviations for 3a: Asat = light saturated photosynthetic exchange rate, growth = in forest/woody species this refers to radial growth/tree ring width, ANPP = aboveground net primary production, GPP = gross primary productivity, AGC = aboveground carbon stocks

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1082 Fig. 4: Hypothesized changes in ecosystem resilience of an ecosystem property or process (intrinsic 1083 factor, IF) to a subsequent drought in relation to i) its post-recovery state following the antecedent 1084 drought event, ii) the adaptation versus degradation of other ecosystem properties and processes (IFs) 1085 as well as iii) characteristics of the subsequent drought. The colour code of post-recovery state refers 1086 to Fig. 1, blue and red indicating an increase or decrease in ecosystem state, respectively. Next to the 1087 post-recovery state, adaptation and degradation of IFs (for a summary of IFs see Fig. 2, for examples 1088 on adaptations and degradations of IF see Fig. 5) can alter resilience to subsequent drought. Extrinsic 1089 factors, including timing (S1-S3, see Fig. 1), the severity, and the frequency of the subsequent 1090 drought(s) can affect resilience (defined here as the combined resistance to and recovery from a 1091 drought event).

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**Fig. 5:** Post-drought adaptation / degradation of selected processes and properties on species, community, ecosystem scale (intrinsic factors) associated with higher/lower resilience (i.e. capacity to resist and recover) towards a subsequent drought event. An adaptation, e.g. through increases in fine root mass, mycorrhizae or water use efficiency (CO<sub>2</sub> uptake relative to H<sub>2</sub>O loss), will lead to higher resilience, while a degradation, e.g. of plant cover, species diversity or soil texture, will typically lead to a lower resilience. For further explanations see text.



Time









Post-recovery state of an IF

