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1 **Type of article:** Original Article

2

3 **Title: Intensity and timing of land use influence annual increment in growth rings of**

4 ***Galium mollugo* in temperate grasslands**

5

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13 **Running title:** Variation in annual growth rings of *Galium mollugo*

14

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16 **Abstract**

17 **Background and Aims:** Current grassland management including fertilization, mowing and  
18 livestock grazing, substantially influences plant communities, however it is not fully understood  
19 how management can affect plant growth at the individual level. Most herbaceous  
20 dicotyledonous plant species form distinct annual rings in the xylem that reveal age but their  
21 annual width may also respond to changes in environmental conditions. Further is unclear at  
22 what scale, from the local plot level to the regional level, such secondary growth varies most.

23 **Methods:** Using cross sections of the oldest well-preserved detectable part of the rhizome of  
24 *Galium mollugo* agg., we determined the response of secondary growth to the intensity, timing,  
25 and type of grassland management for 1220 individuals across 60 populations in three different  
26 regions in Germany. In addition, we used environmental variables to examine the effects of  
27 climatic, soil, and diversity-related characteristics on ring width variation.

28 **Key Results:** The age of the studied *G. mollugo* individuals ranged between one and 17 years  
29 (average age six years). Secondary growth varied most among individuals within sites and only  
30 slightly among sites within regions and among regions, indicating a strong influence of local  
31 plant-plant interactions. Increasing overall management and land-use intensity decreased  
32 secondary growth while a late start of annual land use increased it. In addition, summer soil  
33 moisture was positively related while neighbour species richness was negatively related to  
34 secondary growth.

35 **Conclusions:** Our results indicate that annual secondary growth of a widespread herbaceous  
36 grassland species is sensitive to timing and intensity of land use and season water regimes. The  
37 results imply that trends of increasing land-use intensity along with prolonged summer heat  
38 waves will further hamper growth of *G. mollugo* which may translate to reduced performance  
39 and subsequently affect the overall plant community.

40

41 **Keywords:** climate, *Galium mollugo*, grassland, growth ring, land use intensity, management

42 timing, secondary growth, xylem

43 **Introduction**

44 Grasslands are globally an important biome, which occupies more than one third of the  
45 terrestrial surface and provides many ecosystem functions and services (Bengtsson *et al.*, 2019).  
46 In Central Europe, most grassland originated as a result of human management. Traditional  
47 low-intense agricultural practices like grazing of domestic animals or haymaking have created  
48 plant communities, which belong to the most diverse ecosystems in Europe (Hejcman *et al.*,  
49 2013). However, land-use change involving homogenization, abandonment and/or  
50 intensification has caused a notable decrease in grassland diversity, especially in the second  
51 half of the last century (Poschlod and WallisDeVries, 2002, Jandt *et al.*, 2022). Land-use  
52 intensification of grasslands includes higher fertilizer input, more frequent cuts in meadows or  
53 increased livestock densities in pastures. Changes in grassland management can affect plant  
54 demography and species coexistence due to altered resource competition (Hautier *et al.*, 2009,  
55 Socher *et al.*, 2013). Fertilization generally increases biomass production and vegetation  
56 density and intensifies competition for light (Hautier *et al.*, 2009, Socher *et al.*, 2012). Both,  
57 grazing and mowing can be seen as disturbances affecting vegetation structure, the occurrence  
58 and distribution of gaps and the availability of resources such as light and nutrients. Livestock  
59 grazing involves processes such as trampling, selective foraging and deposition of excreta by  
60 grazing animals and creates more heterogeneous swards, while mowing is a non-selective, more  
61 uniform process of biomass removal which can lead to homogenization of the vegetation (Tälle  
62 *et al.*, 2016).

63 Temperate grasslands are facing growing seasons characterized by much warmer temperatures  
64 as well as increased spring and reduced summer precipitation (Hari *et al.*, 2020, IPCC, 2021,  
65 *Regionaler Klimaatlas Deutschland*, 2022). While the severe impacts of prolonged droughts,  
66 increased temperatures and more extreme climate events on plant productivity in grasslands has  
67 been shown in various studies (e.g. Ciais *et al.*, 2005, Korell *et al.*, 2024), it is not well

68 understood how climate change affect the growth dynamics of individual species under natural  
69 conditions.

70 One rather hidden aspect of plant growth is the formation of rings in the xylem of perennial  
71 herbaceous dicotyledonous grassland species. It is well known from dendroecology that xylem  
72 growth responds sensitively to variation in environmental conditions, i.e. poor growth  
73 conditions may be reflected by narrow annual growth rings, while better growth conditions are  
74 related to wider rings (Fritts, 1966). So far, only few studies attempted to explain differences  
75 in growth ring width in perennial dicotyledonous forb species among plant individuals within  
76 or between populations or fluctuations of ring widths among years (e.g. Dietz and Fattorini,  
77 2002, Dietz and von Arx, 2005, von Arx *et al.*, 2006). In grassland species, this secondary  
78 growth, which can be derived from stem sections, has been found to respond to fertilization and  
79 clipping in an experimental context (Dee and Palmer, 2016, Dee and Palmer, 2019), but the  
80 effects of “real-world” anthropogenic land use on secondary growth are still unknown. Another  
81 important aspect in relation to land use is the timing of its application. Since growth ring  
82 formation starts with the main increment early in the growing season (Dietz and Ullmann, 1997,  
83 von Arx and Dietz, 2005), land-use activities in spring may have a greater impact on secondary  
84 growth than those implemented later in the year. However, the effects of timing in land use on  
85 ring width have not yet been studied.

86 Regarding the effects of climatic variables, it is already known that there can be a correlation  
87 between ring width and temperature in cold-limited grassland ecosystems (Liu and Zhang,  
88 2010, Doležal *et al.*, 2020, Rai *et al.*, 2024). However, this relationship might be different in  
89 temperate ecosystems, where the formation of growth rings may be under stronger control of  
90 water availability, as the xylem formation can be water dependent (von Arx *et al.*, 2012, Olano  
91 *et al.*, 2013). The impact of climate on ring width also likely depends on other site- or even  
92 microsite-specific conditions (Dietz *et al.*, 2004, Klimešová *et al.*, 2013, Doležal *et al.*, 2020).  
93 In general, not much is known about variation in secondary growth in response to

94 environmental conditions at different spatial resolutions. Some studies have found little  
95 variation across different geographic regions (Dietz and von Arx, 2005, Bär *et al.*, 2008)  
96 pointing to the importance of site-specific conditions determined by soil (e.g., soil texture,  
97 nutrients or acidity) or vegetation characteristics such as species richness. These factors  
98 influence resource availability and consequently plant-plant interactions such as competition  
99 which can alter annual ring growth (Dee and Palmer, 2016, Dee and Palmer, 2019). Even  
100 though some aspects influencing secondary growth are known, its potential has not been fully  
101 explored in ecological studies.

102 In the present study, we selected the widespread forb species *Galium mollugo* agg. to investigate  
103 the annual rings in the rhizome of 1220 individuals. The individuals originated from 60  
104 populations from grassland areas in three different regions of Germany with different land-use  
105 types, intensities and times of application (*Biodiversity Exploratories*) (Fischer *et al.*, 2010).  
106 We also assessed effects of site-level climatic, edaphic and diversity-related variables on  
107 secondary growth variation. We asked 1) Does secondary growth of *G. mollugo* respond to  
108 different land-use types and varying land-use intensity and timing between years? 2) Does  
109 secondary growth of *G. mollugo* respond to between-year and site variation in spring and  
110 summer precipitation and/or temperature? 3) Do additional local site and/or microsite  
111 characteristics such as soil or diversity-related variables determine secondary growth in *G.*  
112 *mollugo*?

113

## 114 **Methods**

115

### 116 *Study species*

117 *Galium mollugo* agg. (Rubiaceae) is a widely distributed perennial grassland forb. It reproduces  
118 both sexually and vegetatively and is, because of its tall stature (30-100 cm; Jäger *et al.*, 2013),  
119 highly competitive with other meadow forb species (Mersereau and DiTommaso, 2003).

120 Originating from a bulbous cotyledonar node young individuals produce adventitious roots  
121 which form plants with a clumpy growth, while well-developed plants may also grow with  
122 longer belowground rhizomes (Mörchen, 1965). Compared to other forbs in temperate  
123 grasslands, individuals are relatively long-lived and growth rings are mostly clearly  
124 distinguishable (Roeder *et al.*, 2017), which makes the species particularly suitable for the  
125 analysis of secondary growth. Across Germany *G. mollugo* agg. has different subspecies  
126 (Bundesamt für Naturschutz, 2022). According to the results of a recent study about genetic  
127 diversity across multiple temperate grassland species (Durka *et al.*, 2025), *Galium album* Mill.  
128 (*G. mollugo* ssp. *album*) is the much more common species, but *G. mollugo* s. str. is also found  
129 almost everywhere in Germany. Both species show smooth transitions in their expression of  
130 morphological characteristics used for their identification (Krendl, 1967) . We did not further  
131 determine the subspecies and therefore refer to *G. mollugo* L. agg.

132

### 133 *Field sites and experimental design*

134 The study was conducted in the so-called *Biodiversity Exploratories* (Fischer *et al.*, 2010). They  
135 are implemented in three different regions in Germany: *Schorfheide-Chorin* region (an  
136 UNESCO biosphere reserve embedded in a young glacial landscape in the lowlands of north-  
137 eastern Germany), the *Hainich-Dün* region (located in the National Park Hainich with  
138 surroundings in the hilly areas of Central Germany on calcareous bedrock), and *Schwäbische*  
139 *Alb* region (an UNESCO biosphere reserve in the low mountain area of south-western Germany  
140 on calcareous bedrock). The regions represent different landscape types and reflect a gradient  
141 with rising altitude, increasing precipitation and slightly decreasing annual mean temperatures  
142 from north-east to south-west Germany (Fig. 1A). Fifty grassland study plots within each region  
143 were established along local land-use gradients, where mean and range of land-use intensities  
144 were comparable among regions (Fischer *et al.*, 2010, Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012) and are typical for  
145 managed grasslands in Central Europe. They are managed by mowing or grazing, or a

146 combination of both. Grazing involves different livestock types, mostly cattle or sheep, and less  
147 often horses (Vogt *et al.*, 2019). Land-use intensity was assessed yearly by gathering  
148 information from farmers to create a land-use intensity (LUI) index with the aim to reduce the  
149 complexity of three land-use components, i.e. mowing, grazing and fertilization, into a single  
150 dimension (Blüthgen *et al.*, 2012). The grazing part of the land-use index accounts for different  
151 livestock types by converting the grazing animals to livestock units (depending on type and age  
152 of the grazing species) and the duration of grazing (= number of livestock units per days and  
153  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ). The mowing part of the land-use index quantifies the frequency of mowing (and  
154 mulching) as intensity (= number of cuts per year), which varies between no mowing and the  
155 maximum of four cuts per year, while one or two cuts per year are more typical (Vogt *et al.*,  
156 2019). Fertilization includes the use of different fertilizer types such as mineral fertilizer,  
157 farmyard manure or slurry. In most cases manuring is done in early spring at the beginning of  
158 the growing season (between late February and mid-April) and can be expected to influence the  
159 current year's growth. However, in some cases, manuring is done later in spring (until June), in  
160 autumn to early winter (between September and December) or several times per year. The  
161 fertilizer component of the land-use index also incorporates that nutrients are not immediately  
162 available from all manure types, but could also be later released for example from farmyard  
163 manure. In this case, the nitrogen input from manuring enters the fertilizer intensity of the next  
164 (two) growing season in the fertilization index (Vogt *et al.*, 2019). For each study site and year,  
165 the compound land-use intensity (LUI) was quantified as a continuous variable using the  
166 following equation,

$$167 \quad LUI = \frac{G_p}{G_g} + \frac{M_p}{M_g} + \frac{F_p}{F_g}$$

168 where  $G_p$  is grazing intensity,  $M_p$  is mowing intensity and  $F_p$  is fertilization intensity on a study  
169 plot  $p$  for a given year. The three components are divided by the global mean (across all regions  
170 and years) of the respective component ( $G_g$ ,  $M_g$  and  $F_g$ , respectively), and the square-root of the

171 summed standardized components was extracted, according to Blüthgen *et al.* (2012).  
172 Information on mowing, grazing and fertilization was obtained from land owners (Vogt *et al.*,  
173 2019), and calculations were done using the LUI calculation tool (Ostrowski *et al.*, 2020)  
174 implemented in BExIS (<http://doi.org/10.17616/R32P9Q>). Values of each component were  
175 used to quantify fertilization, mowing and grazing intensity, respectively (Supplementary  
176 Information Fig. S1A-D). We also calculated the intensity of management (MI) as square-  
177 rooted sum of standardized mowing and grazing (Supplementary Information Fig. S1E). In  
178 addition, we had data on the timing of land use per plot per year (i.e. the month, when first or  
179 the last mowing or grazing was done in a year) (Ayasse *et al.*, 2022), which we used in the  
180 statistical analysis as ordinal variable. Typical time for first mowing or grazing is May or June,  
181 but it also varies among sites and years (Supplementary Information Fig. S2).

182

183 *Sampling, growth ring analyses and set-up of time series*

184 Vegetation records from all grassland study plots of the *Biodiversity Exploratories* (Bolliger *et*  
185 *al.*, 2020) were screened to choose the study plots for sampling of *G. mollugo* with the aim to  
186 equally represent the regions of the *Biodiversity Exploratories* and to cover different grassland  
187 management types and land-use intensities within each region. Due to the lower occurrence of  
188 *G. mollugo* we sampled only ten plots in the region *Schorfheide-Chorin*, while in the *Hainich-*  
189 *Diin* region and *Schwäbische Alb* region, samples were collected on 26 and 25 grassland plots,  
190 respectively. On each grassland plot with a total size of 50 × 50 m, a strip of 50 × 2 m on the  
191 eastern side of the plot was available for sampling. Sampling was conducted between 2017 and  
192 2019 in summer or early autumn (July to September) when the growth ring of the current year  
193 is formed and the vegetation is well developed to easily identify species. On each plot, 20  
194 individuals were sampled along a transect with a minimum distance of one meter to each other  
195 taking the individual growing with the clumpy part closest to the sampling point. First, we  
196 identified all neighbouring species rooting within a minimum distance of 10 cm to the clumpy

197 part of the focal individual to get an estimate of local species richness and composition.  
198 Afterwards, we carefully excavated the focal individual with a weeding trowel or small shovel  
199 and transported the plants in sealed plastic bags to the laboratory. There, we cleaned the samples  
200 from soil with tap water. A segment of the oldest stem portion (5-15 cm long; dependent on the  
201 growth of the individual) comprising the part with the cotyledon node if available (see Fig. 1B  
202 for a typical specimen) was excised from each plant and placed in plastic tubes with 70%  
203 ethanol. Later, the samples were cut using a microtome (Microtome type GSL1; Gärtner and  
204 Schweingruber, 2013). In cases, where the oldest part of the specimen could not be clearly  
205 assigned, especially when several rhizomes grew from the cotyledon node, cuts were made at  
206 different parts. Microtome sections were put on a slide into a drop of a glycerol-water mixture  
207 (1:1) and covered with a cover glass. Ring width was measured directly under the microscope  
208 (Axio-Scope A1 Microscope, Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Jena, Germany, equipped with a  
209 microscopic camera, Axiocam 105 colour; Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Jena, Germany) and  
210 analysed with the built-in measuring function of the microscope software (ZEN 2, blue edition,  
211 Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, 2014). Images of the microsections were taken for  
212 documentation (Fig. 1C). If necessary, a polarized light filter was used to facilitate ring  
213 visibility and measure annual radial growth.  
214 The age of the individuals was assessed by counting the number of annual rings. In total, 1219  
215 individuals of *G. mollugo* were analyzed (500 individuals in *Schwäbische Alb* region, 519  
216 individuals in *Hainich-Dün* region as measurements were not possible for one individual due  
217 to low ring distinctness, and 200 individuals in *Schorfheide-Chorin* region) (Roeder and  
218 Roscher, 2024). Due to low sample depth in the early years and the beginning of land-use and  
219 climate data availability starting in 2008, we decided to truncate our time series from 2008 to  
220 the respective year of sampling (i.e., 2017, 2018, or 2019) for the analyses of annual secondary  
221 growth.  
222

223 *Plot-level soil, climate and diversity-related data*

224 Plot-level information on soil, climate and plant diversity was derived from the publicly  
225 available data of the *Biodiversity Exploratories*. Climate data were collected from weather  
226 stations located on each plot that record observations every ten minutes (Hänsel *et al.*, 2024).  
227 Here, we used air temperature measured 2 m above the ground, soil temperature measured 10  
228 cm below the surface, soil moisture measured 10 cm below the surface, and precipitation based  
229 on RADOLAN (Weigl, 2017). For the statistical analyses, we calculated mean values for spring  
230 (March to May) and summer (June to August) for soil moisture, soil and air temperature, or the  
231 summed the values for precipitation across the respective months. Soil data were collected in  
232 repeated soil sampling campaigns. Here, we used C<sub>org</sub>:N ratio (Schöning, 2023), soil pH  
233 (measured in CaCl<sub>2</sub>) (Schöning, 2024) and clay and sand content (Schöning *et al.*, 2021) from  
234 soil cores of the upper 10 cm of the soil horizon. For species richness as diversity measure at  
235 plot level, we used species surveys conducted within a 4 x 4 m subplot of each plot yearly in  
236 spring (Bolliger *et al.*, 2020). For species richness in close proximity to the harvested *G.*  
237 *mollugo* individuals, we assessed species numbers recorded around the individual (see above)  
238 (Roscher and Roeder, 2024). For an overview of all variables see Table S1 in the Supplementary  
239 Information.

240

241 *Statistical analysis*

242 All statistical analyses were conducted with the statistical software R (version 4.2.2; R Core  
243 Team, 2022). The data were structured in a long format so that each ring width measurement  
244 was associated with the respective year of the ring.  
245 To assess variation in plant age, mean ring width and to detect possible correlations of ring  
246 width series within regions, within plots and within individuals (i.e. first order autocorrelation),  
247 we used the function RwlInfo from the *detrendeR* package (Campelo, 2012). This function can  
248 calculate the age, the ring width, the correlation between series of a given data set based on a

249 master series which is derived from all series in the data set and the first order autocorrelation  
250 (i.e., testing if there is a temporal dependency between ring width of two consecutive years) of  
251 each series. For the determination of age and mean ring width we used the entire data set with  
252 1219 individuals, for the determination of inter series and first order autocorrelation we had to  
253 exclude 17 one-year-old individuals, because calculation of correlations was not possible. We  
254 double checked the output from the *RwlInfo* function by re-calculating all variables by hand.  
255 We tested for an effect of region on plant age, mean ring width, inter series and first order  
256 autocorrelation using mixed-effects models with plot as random effect to account for statistical  
257 dependencies of individuals collected on the same plot (i.e. the same population) using the *lme4*  
258 package (Bates *et al.*, 2015). We tested for differences between the regions using post-hoc  
259 Tukey's test from the *emmeans* package (Lenth, 2022).

260 To assess the effects of different land-use types and intensities, as well as the effects of land-  
261 use timing on secondary growth, we applied generalized additive mixed models (GAMM) using  
262 the packages *mgcv* (Wood, 2011) and *nlme* (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000). GAMMs allow to model  
263 both linear and nonlinear effects, which is useful when dealing with plant age because of  
264 nonlinear ontogenetic effects (Olano *et al.*, 2013). Fixed effects assuming a linear relationship  
265 were the overall land-use intensity, management intensity and the single components grazing,  
266 fertilization and mowing intensities of the year when the growth ring was formed as well as the  
267 timing (month) of the first management activity (i.e. grazing or mowing) in the respective year  
268 as ordinal variable. The components grazing, fertilization and mowing intensities were log-  
269 transformed after adding 1 (there were many zeros in the data), because of their non-normal  
270 distribution. We also lagged all variables by one year to test for potentially delayed effects on  
271 secondary growth (data not shown). The random effects in all models were sample (i.e.  
272 individual from which the ring widths were measured) nested in plot nested in region to account  
273 for the hierarchical design of the sampling. In addition, to account for temporal dependency,  
274 since the ring width and land-use data were time series data, we added a temporal

275 autocorrelation structure of order 1 with the grouping factor sample nested in plot nested in  
276 region (Zuur *et al.*, 2009). To meet the assumptions of heteroscedasticity and normality of errors  
277 ring width was log-transformed. Prior to fitting the land-use variables we entered plant age at  
278 the ring level (i.e. the age of the individual, when the ring was formed) as a smoothed fixed  
279 effect modelled with a penalized cubic regression spline to account for a potential, nonlinear  
280 age-related effect on secondary growth and validated this by checking against the null model.  
281 We set  $k = 5$  in the smoothing term to prevent the smoothing term from overfitting due to a  
282 skewed age distribution (i.e. limited number of individuals older than ten) (Wood, 2017). All  
283 models were fitted using maximum likelihood and were evaluated on a comparison of AIC and  
284 log likelihoods ratios. To provide the coefficients of determination showing the variance  
285 explained by fixed and random effects in the models we used the *MuMIn* package (Barton,  
286 2024). We used the same approach to test for effects of climatic variables on secondary growth.  
287 Fixed effects tested against the model with only age as a smoothed fixed effect were air and  
288 soil temperature, soil moisture and precipitation separately for spring (March to May) and  
289 summer (June to August). We exclusively tested for an effect of climate variables in spring and  
290 summer since these represent conditions during the active growing season. Previous growth  
291 ring analyses have also found these seasons to be most influential (Olano *et al.*, 2013). To also  
292 test for effects of diversity-related and soil variables on secondary growth we ran further models  
293 with the same random effects using neighbour species richness (i.e. number of species in close  
294 proximity to the harvested individual) and plot species richness (from a 4 x 4 m area), as well  
295 as soil carbon to nitrogen ratio (Corg:N), clay and sand content and pH as explanatory variables.  
296 Neighbour species richness and plot species richness were log-transformed.  
297 In a final step we started with the best performing (based on AIC) model of the previously  
298 mentioned models and added explanatory variables which had no correlation issue  
299 (Supplementary Information Fig. S3) in a stepwise manner always checking for significant  
300 improvement of the model, based on change in loglikelihood values, p-values and AICs, with

301 the previous best model (forward model selection). The resulting final model had the same  
302 random effect and temporal autocorrelation structure as described above. Fixed effects in the  
303 final model were plant age modelled as a smoothed term, timing of the first land use, summer  
304 air and soil temperature and moisture, spring soil temperature and neighbour species richness  
305 (log-transformed) (Table 1). The final model was fitted using restricted maximum likelihood,  
306 as this is more conservative against overfitting than maximum likelihood in a GAMM context  
307 (Wood, 2017). Significance of the parametric and the smoothed terms in the final model was  
308 assessed with the summary function.

309 To understand the importance of environmental conditions of contrasting spatial resolution (i.e.,  
310 hierarchical levels of the experiment; region, plot, individual plant) for secondary growth we  
311 estimated the variance explained by the random factors using the *rptR* package and *rpt* function  
312 with 1000 bootstrap iterations and 1000 permutations from the final model coded according to  
313 the model framework of *lme4* (Stoffel *et al.*, 2017). This function calculates the repeatability *R*,  
314 which can explain variance in data, as variance among group means over the combined group  
315 and residual variance (Stoffel *et al.*, 2017).

316

## 317 **Results**

318

### 319 *Characteristics of regional chronologies*

320 On average, individuals in the *Schwäbische Alb* were 5.9 ( $\pm 0.1$  s.e) years old, in the *Hainich-*  
321 *Dün* 6.4 ( $\pm 0.1$ ) years old, and in the *Schorfheide-Chorin* 5.4 ( $\pm 0.2$ ) years old (Fig. 2A,  
322 Supplementary Information Table S2). The oldest individual across the experimental regions  
323 was sampled in the *Hainich-Dün* region at 17 years of age. Individuals in the *Schwäbische Alb*  
324 region had a mean ring width of 199.87 ( $\pm 2.89$ )  $\mu\text{m}$ , in the *Hainich-Dün* region a mean ring  
325 width of 183.81 ( $\pm 3.20$ )  $\mu\text{m}$  and in the *Schorfheide-Chorin* region a mean ring width of 216.56  
326 ( $\pm 6.96$ )  $\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 2B, Supplementary Information Table S2). The mean correlation among the

327 chronologies of individuals from the same plot and region was low: 0.29 ( $\pm$  0.02) for  
328 *Schwäbische Alb* and *Hainich-Dün* and 0.32 ( $\pm$  0.04) for *Schorfheide-Chorin* (Fig. 3A,  
329 Supplementary Information Table S2). In addition, the mean first order autocorrelation for  
330 individuals of each plot and region was low: -0.09 ( $\pm$  0.01) for *Schwäbische Alb*, -0.06 ( $\pm$  0.01)  
331 for *Hainich-Dün* and -0.10 ( $\pm$  0.02) for *Schorfheide-Chorin* (Fig. 3B, Supplementary  
332 Information Table S2), expressing high interannual variation of radial growth independent from  
333 growth ring width of the previous year. Mean ring width from individuals in *Hainich-Dün* was  
334 significantly smaller than from individuals in *Schorfheide-Chorin* (Tukey HSD test:  $p = 0.011$ ).  
335 None of the other characteristics measured differed significantly between the three regions.  
336

337 *Effects of land-use type, intensity, and timing on annual growth ring width*  
338 Plant age at the year of growth ring formation was nonlinearly associated with secondary  
339 growth (Table 2, Supplementary Information Fig. S4). After accounting for variation dependent  
340 on plant age, overall land-use intensity and management intensity were negatively associated  
341 with secondary growth, while of the single land-use types only grazing negatively affected  
342 secondary growth (Supplementary Information Table S3). Regarding the timing of land use,  
343 the timing of the first land use (mowing or grazing) in the year had a significant effect on  
344 secondary growth (Table 2). The later in the year the first land use occurred, the wider the  
345 annual growth rings became (Fig. 4A). Land use in the previous year did not affect secondary  
346 growth in the following year (analyses not shown).  
347

348 *Effects of plot-level climate, soil and diversity-related variables on annual growth ring width*  
349 Modelling of plot-level climate variables resulted in spring air temperature and summer  
350 precipitation as well as spring and summer soil moisture being positively associated with  
351 secondary growth, while spring precipitation and soil temperature and summer air and soil  
352 temperature were negatively associated with secondary growth (Supplementary Information

353 Table S3). Modelling of diversity-related variables revealed that neighbour species richness as  
354 well as plot-level species richness had a significant negative association with ring width  
355 (Supplementary Information Table S3). None of the soil variables included in the modelling  
356 process had a significant effect (Supplementary Information Table S3).

357 In the final model nonlinearly modelled plant age, timing of the first land use, spring and  
358 summer soil temperature, summer air temperature and soil moisture as well as neighbour level  
359 species richness significantly improved the model (Table 1). However, only nonlinearly  
360 modelled plant age, timing of the first land use and neighbour level species richness remained  
361 significant on a predictor level (Fig. 4, Table 2). Variation partitioning of the random effects in  
362 the full model showed that only little of the variance expressed as the repeatability  $R$  (see  
363 Methods) in secondary growth was explained by region ( $R = 0.017$ ) and plot ( $R = 0.06$ ) whereas  
364 the individual sample, i.e., the *G. mollugo* individuals from which secondary growth was  
365 measured, explained more variation ( $R = 0.243$ ) (Supplementary Information Fig. S5).

366

## 367 **Discussion**

368 Variation in secondary growth of herbaceous plant species is increasingly used as a valuable  
369 “archive” to deduce plant responses to temporal or spatial changes in growth conditions,  
370 particularly in terms of climate (Liu and Zhang, 2010, Shi *et al.*, 2016, Dee and Stambaugh,  
371 2019, Doležal *et al.*, 2020). Investigating time series of ring width in *G. mollugo* across  
372 managed grasslands in three different regions in Germany, we have found that overall land-use  
373 and management intensity negatively affected secondary growth and that secondary growth  
374 positively responded to first land-use application happening late in the year. The negative  
375 response of ring width to land use was mainly driven by grazing. Furthermore, neighbour and  
376 plot-level species richness had a negative relation to secondary growth. This highlights that  
377 variation in secondary growth can also be attributed to the intensity and timing of land use and  
378 to environmental conditions other than climate. Still, water availability, here precipitation in

379 summer and soil moisture in spring and summer, did additionally increase secondary growth,  
380 whereas higher air and soil temperatures in summer decreased secondary growth. We also show  
381 that the variation in ring width is greatest within plots (i.e., among individuals of the same  
382 population), in contrasts to differences among regions or different study plots within regions.

383

384 *Land-use intensity and timing of application related to ring width*

385 We found that when the first management activity (i.e., grazing or mowing) was later in the  
386 year, this was associated with wider rings of the same year. Since the formation of growth rings  
387 is restricted to the active growing season a time bound effect of land management is plausible.

388 Management that disturbs the shoot by removing photosynthetically active plant parts interrupts  
389 the transport of resources for plant growth and makes it necessary to invest primarily in the re-  
390 growth of the above-ground structures. This is important as ring width is strongly linked to the  
391 emergence of the shoot and was shown to be largest when the shoot has reached maximum size  
392 and assimilated carbon is allocated to root growth (Dee *et al.*, 2018). Consequently,  
393 management happening before the shoot is well developed will have a detrimental effect on  
394 secondary growth, while later management creates a longer period of disturbance free growth.

395 We found no evidence of a carryover effect from late management to ring width of the next  
396 year (data not shown), underpinning the within year effect of land management on secondary  
397 growth. This shows that timing of grassland management is not only important to aboveground  
398 plants parts (Vermeire *et al.*, 2023), but also to the otherwise hidden aspect of secondary growth  
399 which can feed back to plant fitness and performance (Strock and Lynch, 2020).

400 Overall land-use and management intensity as well as grazing intensity were negatively  
401 associated with secondary growth. Furthermore, land-use intensity and management intensity,  
402 were equally important for ring width (Supplementary Information Table S3). The grasslands  
403 we examined in our study include pure pasture and meadows, but often both management types  
404 are combined. Therefore, our results suggest that both types of disturbance through land

405 management (i.e., grazing and mowing), which is included in both variables, is driving the  
406 reduction of ring width. Again, this can be linked to the removal of the photosynthetically active  
407 aboveground plant parts hampering the resource supply needed for secondary growth and  
408 consequently leading to narrower rings. In addition, *Galium* has been observed to thrive well  
409 in unmanaged grasslands (Pavlu *et al.*, 2007) suggesting that it may benefit from its relative tall  
410 stature in undisturbed conditions. It remains to be tested if other perennial grassland forb species  
411 also exhibit intensity- and time-dependent management responses of secondary growth.  
412 Nonetheless our species-specific results suggest that low-intensity land use starting later in the  
413 growing season supports secondary growth.

414

#### 415 *Climate conditions related to ring width*

416 We also found that summer precipitation and spring and summer soil moisture were positively  
417 associated with annual ring width, while summer air and spring and summer soil temperature  
418 were negatively associated with secondary growth. In agreement with our findings, various  
419 studies have already reported on positive effects of summer precipitation on ring width, as well  
420 as region and species-specific negative effects of temperature (e.g. Liu and Zhang, 2010, Shi *et*  
421 *al.*, 2016, Dee and Stambaugh, 2019, Doležal *et al.*, 2022). Studying four temperate grassland  
422 forb species, Doležal *et al.* (2022) have shown that the climate control of secondary growth can  
423 also vary among species. The shallow-rooting forbs (*Lychnis viscaria* Borkh., *Thymus*  
424 *pulegioides* L.) showed a positive response to higher summer precipitation resulting in wider  
425 rings width, while their secondary growth was negatively affected from high summer  
426 temperatures. From a physiological perspective sufficient water availability as indicated by  
427 levels of precipitation and soil moisture allow herbaceous plants to be more competitive in  
428 terms of growth because of increased hydraulic efficiency in the xylem (von Arx *et al.*, 2012,  
429 Dong *et al.*, 2022). The combination of little precipitation in concert with high temperatures  
430 reduces grassland productivity and vitality due to heat stress, increased evapotranspiration and

431 water shortage leading to unfavorable growing conditions (De Boeck *et al.*, 2016, De Boeck *et*  
432 *al.*, 2008, Obermeier *et al.*, 2018, Kowalski *et al.*, 2024). Our study supports previous studies  
433 that such conditions translate to secondary growth and highlights another aspect of the critical  
434 nature of climate change with heat waves and drought events predicted for Central Europe (Hari  
435 *et al.*, 2020, IPCC, 2021, Regionaler Klimaatlas Deutschland, 2022). In addition, there is  
436 evidence that secondary growth and aboveground biomass production, as well as phenology  
437 timing, are linked (Doležal *et al.*, 2018, Dee *et al.*, 2018), which may suggest a possible  
438 cascading effect of climate on various aspects of plant growth and performance.

439

440 *Importance of species richness at the local site scale*

441 Considering vegetation characteristics at different spatial resolutions around the studied  
442 individuals we found a negative relationship between ring width and neighbour species richness  
443 and plot-level species richness. If the main mode of action of higher local richness is increased  
444 competition for resources, plants growing in species-rich surroundings might produce narrower  
445 growth rings, because they may invest more in aboveground than belowground structures to  
446 reduce light competition (Goldberg *et al.*, 2017). In the *Biodiversity Exploratories*, as in other  
447 agriculturally managed grasslands, species richness declines with increasing productivity at the  
448 community level (Socher *et al.*, 2012), which could point to intensified competition for  
449 belowground resources additionally hampering secondary growth. Furthermore, we cannot  
450 exclude that fast-growing large *Galium* individuals with wide rings simply occupied more space  
451 in their close vicinity and thus were associated with lower species richness at the local level.  
452 Our finding that most differences in secondary growth of *G. mollugo* occur between individuals  
453 from the same plot, rather than between plots or regions, underscores the importance of  
454 microsite conditions on ring width in this species. Similar findings about the importance of  
455 local plant-plant interactions on ring width have been shown in forest trees responding to stand  
456 density (Ahmed *et al.*, 2024). For a deeper understanding of the influential drivers of ring width,

457 it would be necessary to closely examine growth conditions both above and below ground in  
458 close proximity to plant individuals. This could include traits related to resource competition of  
459 neighbouring plants or nutrient or water availability in the root growth zone. In summary, our  
460 results imply that anthropogenic land use with its global trend of intensification and climate  
461 change with higher temperatures and reduced precipitation during the growing season can be  
462 critical aspects for secondary growth in herbaceous plants. It remains to be tested to what extent  
463 the effects on secondary growth caused by global change are transferred to the performance of  
464 individual plants and how different species respond to these drivers to assess to what extent  
465 entire plant communities might be affected.

466

#### 467 **Supplementary data**

468 Supplementary data are available and consist of the following

469 **Table S1:** Overview of all modelled variables

470 **Table S2:** Descriptive statistics of the *G. mollugo* samples

471 **Table S3:** Log likelihood ratios and AICs of the generalized additive mixed models testing  
472 effects of land-use intensity and timing, climate, soil and diversity-related variables

473 **Figure S1:** Histograms showing the distribution of the intensity of the three different land use  
474 types, the combined land use intensity and the management intensity

475 **Figure S2:** Bargraph of the timing of the first land management activity

476 **Figure S3:** Correlation plot showing correlation values between all modelled variables

477 **Figure S4:** Bootstrap estimates variances of the different spatial resolutions

478

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694  
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698

699 **Data availability statement**  
700 The data is available in the Biodiversity Exploratories Information System (BEXIS;  
701 <https://www.bexit.uni-jena.de/ddm/publicsearch/> and <https://www.bexit.uni-jena.de/tcd/PublicClimateData/Index>, id no. of the used data sets: 14686, 14447, 23846, 24766,  
702 26106 (all public available), 26478 (not publicly available), 31362 and 31543, which both will  
703 be made public upon publication of the manuscript.  
704

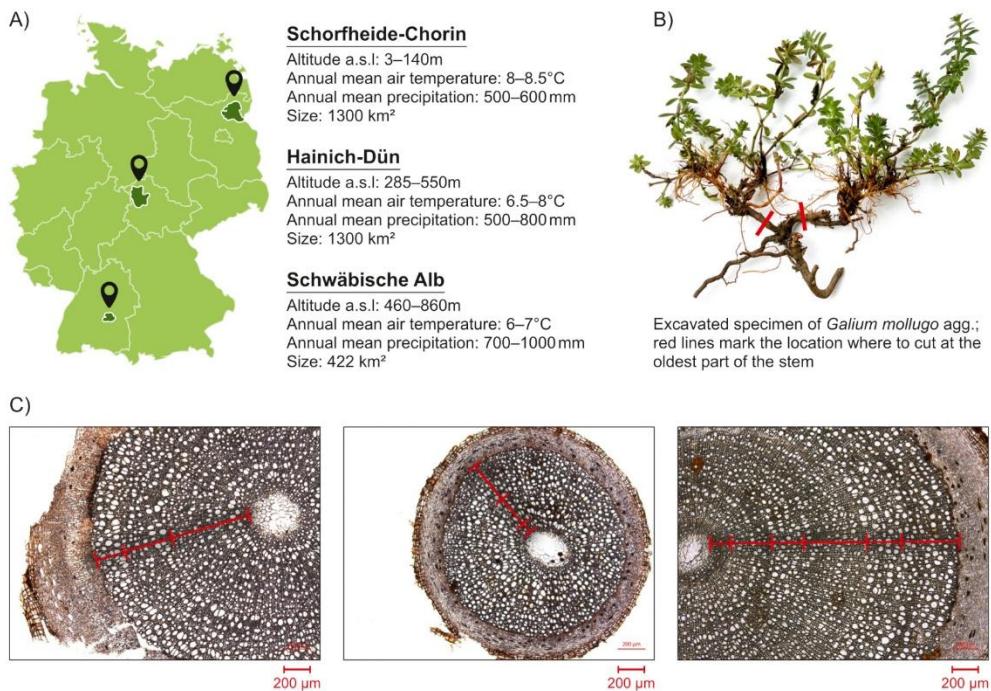
705  
706 **Author contributions**  
707 C.R. and A.R. planned the study and performed the field and laboratory work, A.R. analysed  
708 the microsections. M.T.J. analysed the data and wrote the manuscript with substantial support  
709 from C.R.  
710

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721 park, the UNESCO Biosphere Reserve Swabian Alb and the UNESCO Biosphere Reserve  
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723 permits were issued by the responsible state environmental offices of Baden-Württemberg,  
724 Thüringen, and Brandenburg.

725

726 **Figure captions**



727

728 **Figure 1:** A) Location and characteristics of the three study regions, B) excavated *G. mollugo*  
729 individual, and C) exemplary microscopic images of stem cross sections of *G. mollugo* showing  
730 three different individuals with different rings width and age; demarcation of annual rings is  
731 marked with red horizontal lines along the examined radii. Source of the map shown in (A):  
732 picoStudio/stock.adobe.com.

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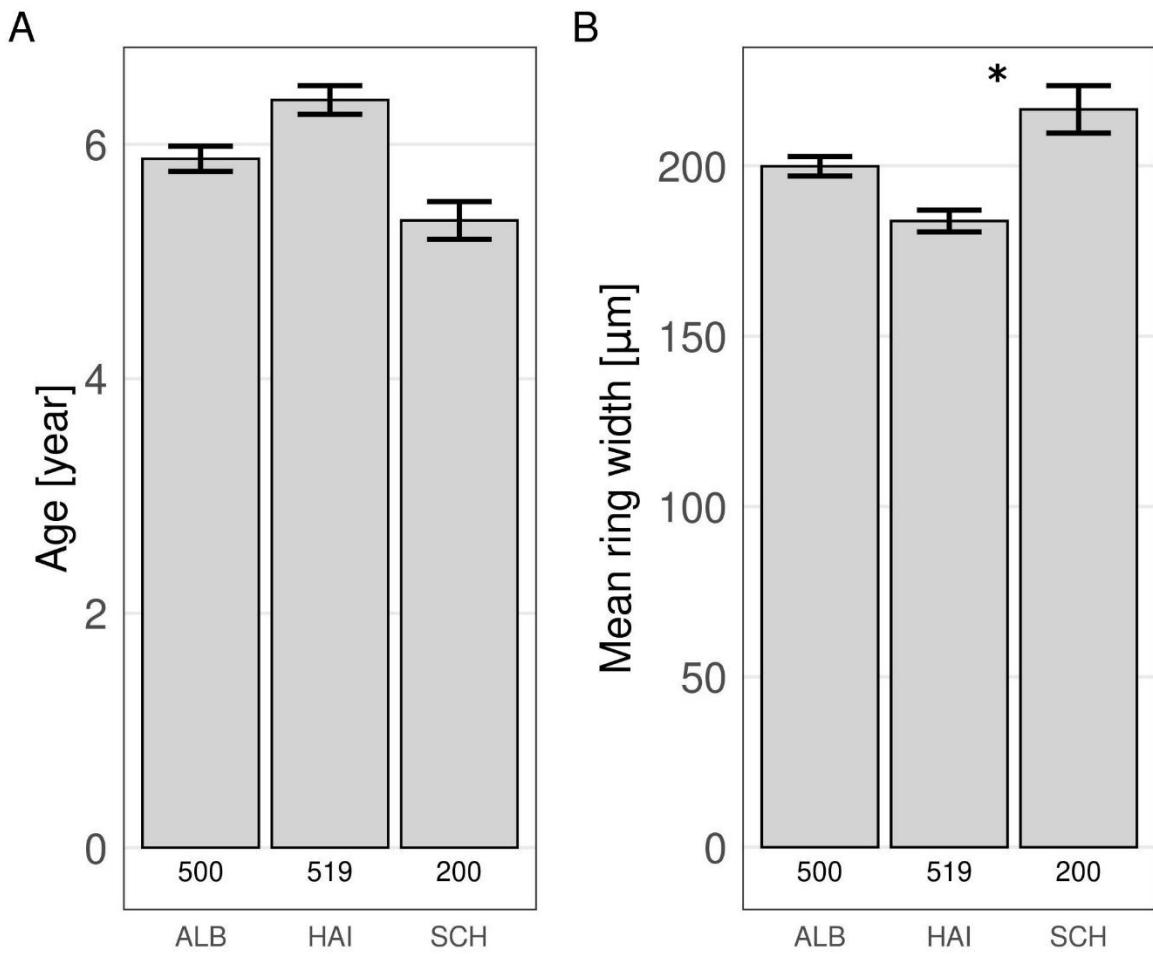
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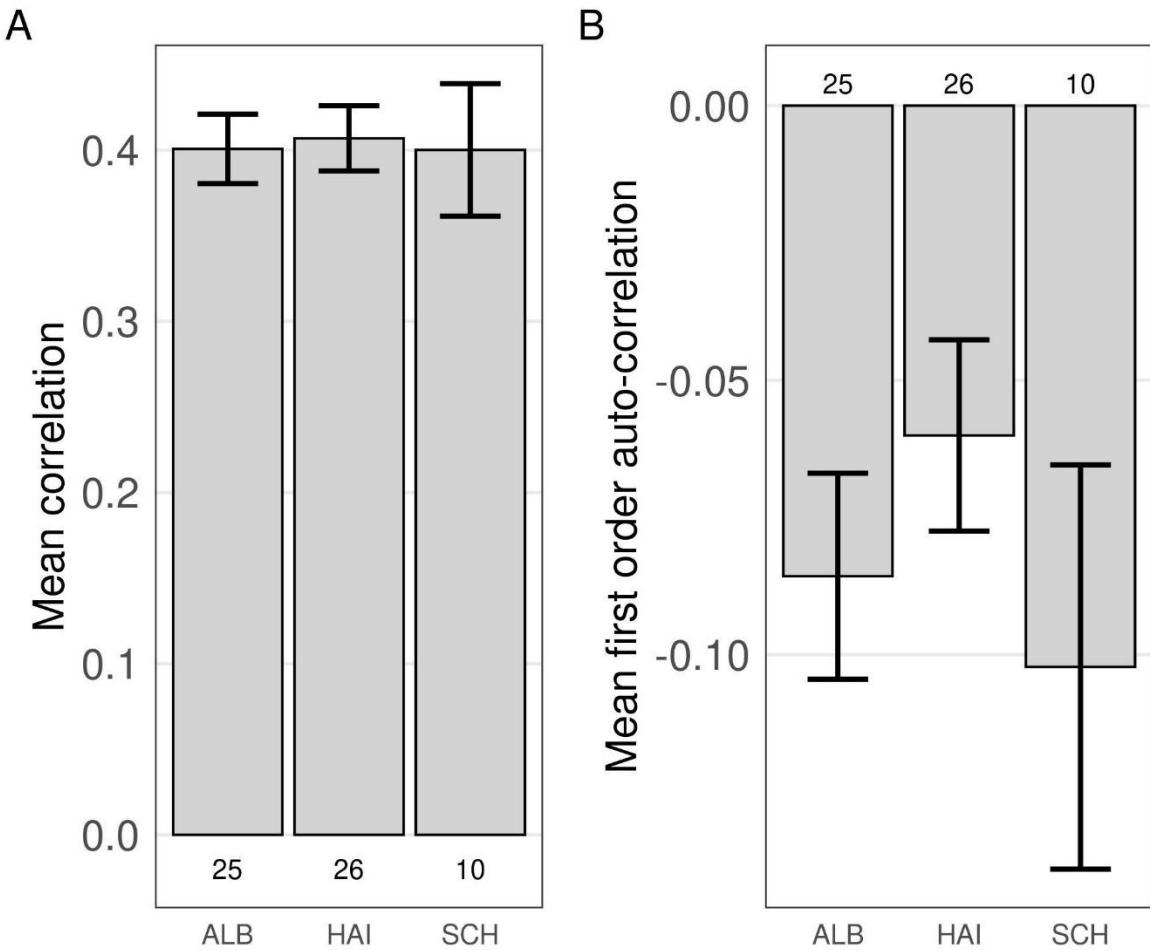
741 **Figure 2.** Descriptive statistics computed with RwlInfo separated by region (ALB =  
 742 *Schwäbische Alb*, HAI = *Hainich-Dün*, SCH = *Schorfheide-Chorin*). A) Age calculated as  
 743 number of growth rings counted. B) Mean growth ring width. All values are means ( $\pm 1 \text{ SE}$ )  
 744 across all samples per region. The numbers show the sample size per region. The asterisks  
 745 shows significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between regions tested with Tukey's test. If no asterisk  
 746 is shown there is no significant difference. One sampled individual in *Hainich-Diin* had no ring  
 747 width measured and was therefore deleted from the data set.

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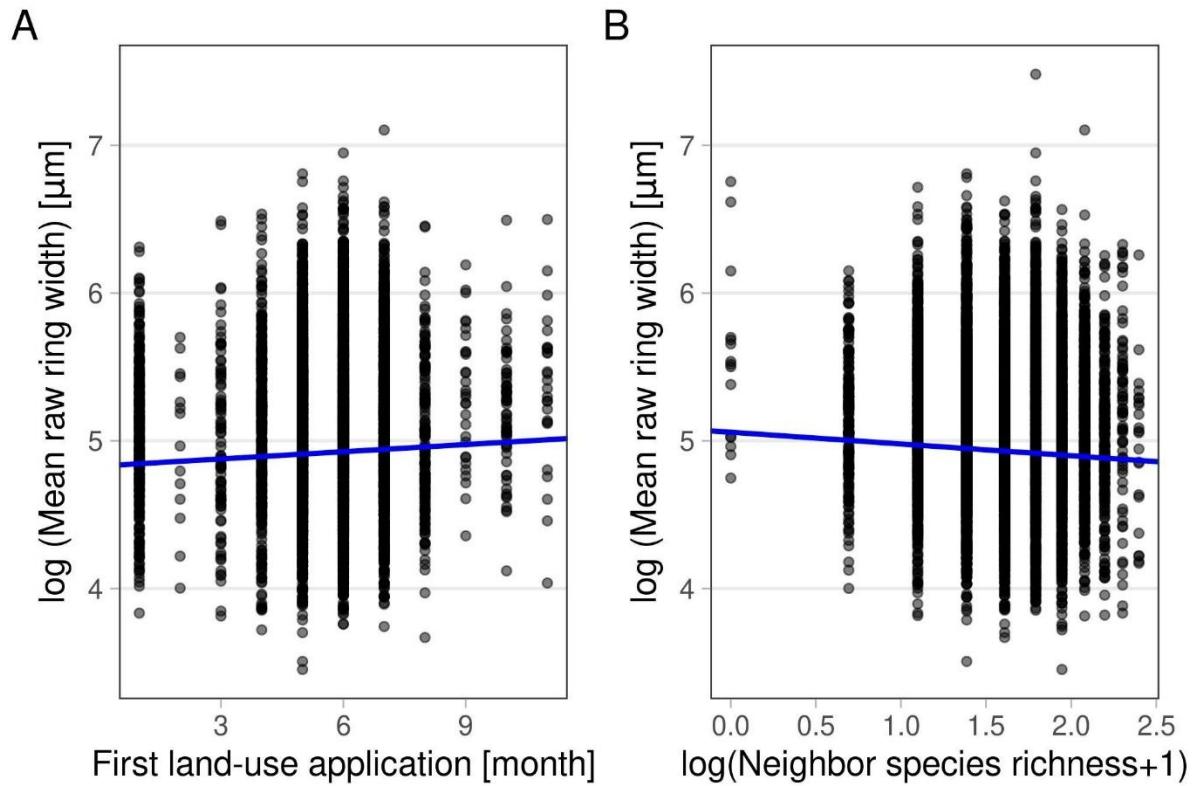


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753 **Figure 3.** Descriptive statistics computed with RwlInfo separated by region (ALB =  
 754 *Schwäbische Alb*, HAI = *Hainich-Dün*, SCH = *Schorfheide-Chorin*). A) Correlation of ring  
 755 widths with the ring width of the master chronology (calculated from the mean ring width per  
 756 year from all individuals per plot as the master chronology per plot) B) Mean first order  
 757 autocorrelation calculated as the correlation between the current and the previous ring width.  
 758 All values are means ( $\pm 1$  SE) across all samples per plot and region. The numbers show the  
 759 plot sample size per region. Note that the numbers differ from the numbers in Fig. 1 because of  
 760 individual level and plot level calculations. There is no statistically significant difference  
 761 between any of the measurements per region.

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765 **Figure 4.** Log-transformed mean ring width in relation to A) first application time of land-use  
 766 (the numbers are modelled ordinaly) ( $R^2_m = 0.03$ ,  $R^2_c = 0.52$ ), B) log transformed neighbour  
 767 species richness ( $R^2_m = 0.02$ ,  $R^2_c = 0.52$ ). The blue lines represent a significant regression line  
 768 derived from fits to the model with age. The data shown represent the years 2009-2019.

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777 **Table 1.** Results of the stepwise forward modelling process resulting in the final model. All  
 778 models had the response variable log transformed ring width, the random effect sample nested  
 779 in plot nested in region and the temporal autocorrelation structure of order 1 with the grouping  
 780 factor sample nested in plot nested in region. The base model included plant age modelled as a  
 781 smoothed term to allow for non-linear ontogenetic effects of age. Model performance was  
 782 evaluated based on a combination of delta loglikelihood values, significant p-values and AICs.  
 783 <sup>a</sup> log transformed data. Significant effects ( $P < 0.05$ ) are printed in bold, marginally significant  
 784 effects ( $P < 0.1$ ) are printed in italic.

Step	Term added	$\Delta\text{LogLik}$	P	AIC
0	Base model with plant age	-	-	8595.05
1	First land-use application	113.35	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	8302.29
2	Summer soil temperature	49.11	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	8175.82
3	Spring soil temperature	18.88	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	8117.36
4	Summer air temperature	4.67	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	8090.93
5	Summer soil moisture	2.91	<i>0.06</i>	8089.41
6	Neighbour species richness <sup>a</sup>	0.0	<b>0.016</b>	8085.59

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787 **Table 2.** Results of the final generalized additive mixed model combining the fixed factors  
 788 which were significant after stepwise forward modelling starting with the best performing  
 789 (based on AIC) model of the single factor models (Table S3 in Supplementary Information).  
 790 Age was added using a smoothing term to account for a nonlinear ontogenetic effect. The  
 791 response variable was log transformed ring width, random effects of the final model were  
 792 sample nested in plot nested in region and a temporal autocorrelation structure of order 1 with  
 793 the grouping factor sample nested in plot nested in region. The upper part of the table presents  
 794 the parametric model results with estimates, standard error (SE) and t-value. The lower part of  
 795 the table presents the results of the smoothed term with estimated degrees of freedom (edf),  
 796 reference degrees of freedom (Ref. df) and F-value. <sup>a</sup> log transformed data. Significant effects  
 797 ( $P < 0.05$ ) are printed in bold, marginally significant effects ( $P < 0.1$ ) are printed in italic.

Across regions				
	Estimate	SE	t-value	P
Intercept	5.012	0.173	29.055	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
First land-use application	0.016	0.005	3.524	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
Summer soil temperature	0.001	0.007	0.192	0.848
Spring soil temperature	0.001	0.004	0.126	0.900
Summer air temperature	0.005	0.008	0.587	0.587
Summer soil moisture	0.002	0.001	1.517	0.055
Neighbour species richness <sup>a</sup>	-0.080	0.032	-2.843	<b>0.013</b>
	edf	Ref. df	F	P
s(Age)	7.094	7.904	92.88	<b>&lt;0.001</b>

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