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- 2 Functional diversity underlies demographic responses to environmental variation in
- 3 **European forests**
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47 Abstract

Aim Biodiversity loss and climate-driven ecosystem modification is leading to substantial changes in forest structure and function. However, diversity effects on demographic responses to the environment are poorly understood. We tested the diversity hypothesis (measured through functional diversity) and the mass-ratio hypothesis (measured through functional identity) on tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance. We sought to determine whether functional diversity underlies demographic responses to environmental variation in European forests.

55 Location Europe (Spain, Germany, Wallonia, Finland and Sweden).

Methods We used data from five European National Forest Inventories from boreal to the 56 Mediterranean biomes (c. 700,000 trees in 54,000 plots and 143 tree species) and the main 57 58 forest types across Europe (i.e. from needle-leaved evergreen forests to broad-leaved deciduous forests). For each forest type, we applied maximum likelihood techniques to quantify the 59 relative importance of stand structure, climate and diversity (i.e. functional diversity and 60 61 functional identity) as determinants of growth, mortality and sapling abundance. We also tested whether demographic responses to environmental conditions (including stand density, 62 evapotranspiration and temperature anomalies) varied with functional diversity. 63

Results Our results suggest that functional diversity had a positive effect on sapling abundance 64 and growth rates in forests across Europe, while no effect was observed for tree mortality. 65 Functional identity had a strong effect on mortality and sapling abundance, with greater 66 mortality rates in forests dominated by needle-leaved individuals and greater abundance of 67 saplings in forests dominated by broad-leaved individuals. Furthermore, we observed that 68 functional diversity modified stand density effects on demographic responses in Mediterranean 69 forests and the influence of evapotranspiration and temperature anomalies in forests widely 70 distributed across Europe. 71

Main conclusion Our results suggest that functional diversity may play a key role in forest
dynamics through complementarity mechanisms, as well as by modulating demographic
responses to environmental variation.

75 INTRODUCTION

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Forests provide multiple ecosystem functions and services fundamental to human well-being 77 78 (e.g. Gamfeldt et al., 2013). However, forests are complex ecosystems dominated by long-lived species of large size and often limited dispersal ability that face major challenges due to 79 diversity loss and rapid climate change (e.g. Jump & Peñuelas, 2005). Diversity loss is leading 80 to important changes in the functioning of multiple ecosystems, similar in magnitude to other 81 global change drivers (e.g. Tilman *et al.*, 2012). In addition, climate change is altering basic 82 demographic responses of tree species, from increases in drought-induced tree mortality events 83 to reductions in recruitment and growth (e.g. Settelle et al., 2014; Allen et al., 2015). 84

Two main hypotheses have been proposed to explain the underlying influence of plant 85 86 functional traits on forest functioning: (i) the diversity hypothesis, which states that functionally-different species can coexist due to complementarity mechanisms which can lead 87 to higher levels of forest functioning; and (ii) Grime's mass ratio hypothesis, which states that 88 89 the functional traits of dominant species in a community most influence the level of ecosystem functioning (e.g. Grime, 1998; Mokany et al., 2008). Most biodiversity and ecosystem 90 functioning studies in forests have focused on tree growth (e.g. Morin et al., 2011; Ruiz-Benito 91 et al., 2014a). However, Liang et al. (2007) observed that diversity effects could be even larger 92 for recruitment than for growth in conifer forests. In addition, Lasky et al. (2014) found that 93 94 the magnitude of diversity effects on biomass changes was larger in early-successional than late-successional tropical forests, due to differences in mortality and growth patterns between 95 the stages. Despite growing evidence of functional diversity and identity effects on tree growth 96 in forest from boreal to Mediterranean climates, it is not clear whether diversity effects are as 97 important for other demographic processes such as recruitment and mortality. Furthermore, 98

99 there is increasing evidence that diversity effects on growth may be modulated by other factors
100 such as climatic conditions (Jucker *et al.*, 2015; Toïgo *et al.*, 2015).

Recent climate change includes temperature increases (i.e. from warmer summers in 101 102 the Mediterranean to warmer winters in boreal regions) and more frequent and intense droughts that are leading to mortality events (Allen et al., 2015) and reductions in recruitment (Walck 103 104 et al., 2011). Interactions between climate and stand structure are altering demographic patterns and decreasing biomass accumulation rates in ecosystems with low water availability (Ruiz-105 Benito et al., 2014b). The alteration in demographic responses may result in changes of the 106 107 distributional range of species under climate change (e.g. Benito-Garzón et al., 2013). Mortality responses to climate have been shown to largely depend on stand structure (Ruiz-108 109 Benito et al., 2013), meanwhile recruitment patterns are essential determinants of future 110 community composition and structure (Carnicer et al., 2014). During the last decade there has been intense debate over the importance of diversity effects on forest functioning, yet these 111 studies have mainly focused on species richness and tree growth as a key ecosystem function 112 (e.g. Zhang et al., 2012; Vilà et al., 2013). Two recent studies suggest that complementarity 113 mechanisms in forest functioning could be more important in resource-limited forests such as 114 Mediterranean drought-prone forests (Grossiord et al., 2014b; Jucker et al., 2015). However, 115 the potential effect of diversity on multiple demographic responses to abiotic and biotic 116 environment remains poorly understood. 117

We used five National Forest Inventories with more than 55,000 plots covering Mediterranean to temperate and boreal biomes, and including the main forest types across Europe (i.e. broad-leaved vs. needle-leaved and evergreen vs. deciduous forests, see Fig. 1 and Baeten *et al.*, 2013). We collated data on four key traits for plant performance for the 143 species (i.e. leaf mass per area, wood density, maximum tree height and seed mass, e.g. Díaz *et al.*, 2016) and tested the influence of functional composition on demography, following: (i)

the diversity hypothesis, i.e. functional diversity determined growth and recruitment through 124 complementarity mechanisms (particularly in water-limited Mediterranean forests) and 125 ameliorated the negative effects of environment (i.e. including competition, climate and recent 126 climate warming) on demography; and (ii) the mass ratio hypothesis, i.e. functional identity 127 influences demographic patterns due to dominance of certain functional traits through selection 128 mechanisms, particularly between contrasting life history strategies. To test these hypotheses, 129 we quantified the functional composition of each plot as the absolute effect of functional 130 diversity (measured as the dispersion of key traits in each plot) and functional identity 131 (measured as the community weighted mean of a single trait in each plot) on growth, mortality 132 and sapling abundance. Secondly, we explored whether demographic responses to biotic and 133 134 abiotic environmental conditions (i.e. including competition, climate and recent temperature 135 increases) were modified by functional diversity.

136 METHODS

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138 Forest inventory dataset and demographic variables

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We compiled data from the National Forest Inventories (NFIs) of Spain, Germany, Belgium 140 (Wallonia), Sweden and Finland (see Appendix S1 and Table S1 in Supporting Information). 141 For each tree we compiled information regarding the species name (see Table S2), diameter at 142 breast height (d.b.h., mm) and status (alive or dead). We classified each plot based on the 143 144 abundance of the species in the following classifications: (i) leaf characteristics (i.e. broad- vs. needle-leaved, deciduous vs. evergreen), and (ii) Mediterranean distribution (i.e. distribution 145 only occurs in the Mediterranean climate, see Table S1), because the response to climate and, 146 147 therefore, the strength of diversity effects may be different in forests well adapted to extreme climatic conditions (Grossiord et al., 2014a,b). We only considered forest types with more than 148 1,000 plots, resulting in 52,180 plots in the following forest types: broad-leaved deciduous, 149 150 Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen, Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen forests and other needle-leaved evergreen forests (see Fig. 1 and Table 1). 151

As demographic variables we used (see also Appendix S2): (i) tree growth (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) calculated as the annual sum of the basal area increment of adult trees that survived both censuses and new adult trees in the second census (i.e. d.b.h. > 10 cm and height > 130 cm); and (ii) tree mortality (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) calculated as the annual basal area of adult trees lost between consecutive inventories, and (iii) sapling abundance (No. saplings ha⁻¹) calculated as the abundance of individuals with a height between 30 cm and 130 cm in the second census of the consecutive inventories (see Table S1 and Fig. S1).

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160 Abiotic and biotic determinants of demographic responses

Initially, we selected 27 potential climatic variables based on temperature and precipitation which describe the: (i) spatial climatic variability over the period 1950-2000 (WorldClim, CGIAR-CSI GeoPortal, and SPEIbase v2.2.; see a list of data sources in Appendix 1 and Table S3); and (ii) recent climate change (NOAA, Boulder, Colorado, USA) defined as the differences in temperature or precipitation between the study period (i.e. the number of years between the two consecutive inventories plus two years before the first survey) and the mean value for the reference period (1900-2010).

Stand structure (i.e. stand tree density calculated as the number of trees per hectare, and 169 mean d.b.h. calculated as the mean diameter of all trees in the stand) and community functional 170 composition (i.e. functional diversity and identity) were also estimated for each plot. We used 171 four key traits to describe the functional composition (see Table S4 and a list of trait data used 172 can be found in Appendix 1): maximum tree height (m), wood density $(g \text{ cm}^{-3})$, seed mass (mg) 173 and leaf mass per area (g m⁻²). These traits are widely recognised as key traits of plant function 174 and performance: maximum height, wood density and seed mass are closely related to life 175 history strategy, while leaf mass per area is related to resource acquisition and plant growth 176 strategy (e.g. Paquette & Messier, 2011; Swenson et al., 2012). Functional diversity (FD, 177 Laliberté & Legendre, 2010) was calculated as the dispersion of functional traits in each plot 178 based on all traits and only seed mass, wood density and maximum height (see Appendix S2). 179 Functional identity (FI, Lavorel et al., 2008) was calculated as the community-level weighted 180 mean of each trait in each plot. 181

Prior to parameterising our maximum likelihood models of demographic responses, we performed a variable selection from the available climatic and biotic variables (Fig. S2-S3). To select from the large climatic dataset we performed a PCA and we selected potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm) as representative of spatial climatic variability (highly and 186 negatively correlated with the first axis of the PCA explaining 49.9% of the variance) and temperature anomaly (TA, °C) as representative of recent climate change (TA showed a 187 stronger negative correlation with the first axis of the PCA than precipitation anomaly). To 188 represent stand structure, we selected tree density (Density, No. trees ha⁻¹) and mean tree 189 diameter (Size, mm) to account for stand density and developmental stage. We selected 190 functional diversity based on seed mass, wood density, and maximum height, and FI based on 191 leaf mass per area (hereafter FILMA). The FD index was selected because the correlation 192 between all diversity indices was high (i.e. considering all traits or subset of traits, r > 0.85) 193 and the subset of traits including seed mass, wood density and maximum tree height has been 194 previously identified as a good predictor of forest functioning (the same indices were used in 195 Paquette & Messier, 2011; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014a) and competitive outcomes (Kunstler et 196 197 al., 2016). The FI index selected was based on leaf mass per area it has been identified as a good indicator of contrasting life history strategies and it is different for the dominant species 198 in the forest types (see Fig. S3, e.g. Wright et al., 2004). 199

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201 Maximum likelihood analysis of tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance

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We fitted non-linear models for tree growth (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), tree mortality (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) and abundance of saplings (No. saplings ha⁻¹) for each forest type separately. The predicted demographic responses (μ_i) were modelled using the following non-linear model:

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207 $\mu_i = \mu_{pot} \times \text{Climate effect} \times \text{Structural effect} \times \text{Functional composition effect}$	(1)
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where μ_{pot} is an estimated model parameter that represents the maximum potential value of tree growth, tree mortality or sapling abundance when all the predictors are at their optimal values; i.e. the potential predictor are sets of non-linear terms that contain scalar modifiers ranging from 0 to 1 that quantify the influence of (ii) climatic conditions (i.e. *climate effect*: PET and TA; Eqn. (2)); (iii) stand structure (i.e. *structural effect*: density and size; defined in Eqn. (3)); and (iv) functional composition (i.e. *functional composition effect*: FD and FI_{LMA}; defined in Eqn. (4)).

For the climate and structural effect, we selected a Gaussian function because it is flexible enough to allow for typical hump-shaped species-environment relationships of species to environment, but also allows for monotonic or sigmoidal responses within restricted ranges of either axis (Gómez-Aparicio *et al.* 2011; Ruiz-Benito *et al.* 2014a). Thus, the *climate effect* on demographic responses was modelled using a Gaussian functional form:

222

223 Climate effect =
$$\exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\text{PET}-\text{XPET}_{a}}{\text{XPET}_{b}}\right)^{2}\right] \times \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\text{TA}-\text{XTA}_{a}}{\text{XTA}_{b}}\right)^{2}\right]$$
 (2)

224

where the parameters $XPET_a$ and XTA_a represent the PET and TA at which maximum tree growth occurs, and $XPET_b$ and XTA_b are the parameters that control the variance of the normal distribution (i.e. the breadth of the function). The *structural effect* on demographic responses was modelled using a bivariate Gaussian function:

230 Structural effect = exp
$$\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\text{Density}-\text{XSTD}_a}{\text{XSTD}_b}\right)^2\right] \times \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\text{Size}-\text{XS}_a}{\text{XS}_b}\right)^2\right]$$
 (3)

231

where the density effect is measured in terms of stand tree density (No. trees ha⁻¹) and the size effect is measured through stand mean d.b.h. (mm). $XSTD_a$ and XS_a are the density and size, at which maximum growth occurs, and $XSTD_b$ and XS_b are the estimated parameters that control the breadth of the function.

For tree growth and sapling abundance, the influence of functional diversity (FD) was 236 modelled using a variation of the exponential form, because FD can have a positive effect on 237 demographic responses at low values of FD but later can reach an asymptotic level (e.g. 238 Paquette and Messier, 2011; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014a). Functional identity (FILMA) was 239 modelled using a Gaussian function because it is flexible enough to allow for the quadratic and 240 monotonic responses of forest performance along functional identity gradients (e.g. Ruiz-241 242 Benito et al., 2014a). Thus, the community functional composition effect was modelled following the next functional form: 243

244

Functional composition effect =
$$[1 - \exp((XFD_a \times FD) - XFD_b)] \times \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{FI_{LMA} - XFI_a}{XFI_b}\right)^2\right]$$
 (4)

where the parameter XFD_a determines the shape of the effect of FD on the predicted variable and XFD_b defines the intercept of the function. The parameter XFI_a represents the FI_{LMA} value at which maximum tree growth and sapling abundance occurs, and XFI_b determines the breadth of the function. For stand mortality, we considered that FD could reduce mortality rates and, thus, we used a variant of Eqn. (4) where the FD was in this case modelled using a negative exponential form:

253

254 Functional composition effect =
$$[exp((XFD_a \times FD) - XFD_b)] \times exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{FI_{LMA} - XFI_a}{XFI_b}\right)^2\right]$$
 (5)

255

where the parameter XFD_a determines the shape of the effect of FD on the predicted variable and XFD_b defines the intercept of the function. The indirect effects of FD on the demographic responses to environmental conditions were tested through variants of parameters X_b in Eqns. (2) and (3). To this aim, we modified the expression that was used to obtain the fitted parameters X_b that control the breadth of the function and, therefore, determine the strength of the environmental effect on demography. The parameters X_b which determine the strength of the environmental effect on demography (i.e. parameters $XSTD_b$, $XPET_b$ and XTA_b ; relating to density, PET and TA effects on demographic responses, respectively) were allowed to vary as a function of functional diversity following:

$$266 X_b = \beta \times FD + X_b' (6)$$

267

where β is a parameter that indicates how FD modifies demographic responses to environment. $\beta = 0$ reflects no influence of FD on demographic responses to environmental conditions. As we hypothesised larger demographic responses to environment when FD is low, $\beta > 0$ was allowed for tree growth and sapling abundance and $\beta < 0$ was allowed for tree mortality (i.e. at high FD there is a reduced influence of density, PET and/or TA on tree growth, tree mortality and/or sapling abundance responses).

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275 Parameter estimation, model selection and validation

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We fitted separate non-linear models of tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance for each forest type. To select the best model, we followed the principle of parsimony and used two-units difference in Akaike Information Criterion as a support interval to assess the strength of evidence of individual maximum likelihood parameter estimates, being roughly equivalent to the 95% support limit defined using a likelihood ratio test (Burnham & Anderson, 2002). Thus, the full model was compared with models that ignored the effect of each predictor variable (i.e. not including the effect of PET, TA, density, size, FD and FI_{LMA}, respectively in
each model) which also informed about the strength of the evidence for including each variable
in the final model.

Given the high number of zeros in the tree mortality and sapling abundance data (see Table 1) a zero inflated normal distribution (ZIN) and a negative binomial distribution were used, respectively, while a normal error distribution was used for tree growth (see Fig. S5). For tree mortality our statistical model estimates two components simultaneously: (i) the probability of mortality based on the binomial variable related to stand mortality, and (ii) the predicted basal area lost due to mortality in the plots that experienced mortality. The ZIN function has the following functional form:

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294
$$Prob(Y = y_i) = \begin{cases} p_s & \text{if } y_i = 0\\ (1 - p_s)Normal(y_i|\theta) & \text{if } y_i > 0 \end{cases}$$
(8)

295

Where y_i represents the basal area lost due to natural mortality in plot *i*, p_s represents a constant probability across the data set of getting zero mortality. When $y_i > 0$ stand mortality was modelled using a normal distribution given the data y_i and the parameters θ , obtained from structural, climatic and diversity effects following Eqns. (1)-(5).

300 The parameter estimates provide the basis for determining the magnitude of the influence of a given process, with maximum likelihood estimates of parameter values close to 301 302 zero or confidence intervals overlapping zero indicating no effect. We used simulated annealing optimisation procedures to determine the parameters that maximize the log-303 likelihood of observing tree growth, mortality and recruitment (Goffe et al., 1994). As a 304 measure of the goodness of fit we calculated the R^2 of the non linear models fitted (1 -305 SSE/SST, SSE: sum of squares error, SST: sum of squares total). As a measure of bias in the 306 prediction we plotted the observed and predicted data and we calculated the slope of the 307

- 308 regression with a zero intercept, where an unbiased model should have a slope of the regression
- 309 equal to 1 (i.e. line 1:1). In addition, we checked the influence of census interval using similar
- approaches to Chen & Luo (2015) (see Appendix S2). The analyses were performed using the
- 311 likelihood package 1.6 (Murphy, 2012) in R.2.15 (R Core Team, 2012).

312 **RESULTS**

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314 Climatic, structural and functional composition influence on tree growth

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The most parsimonious models for tree growth in Mediterranean evergreen forests (both 316 needle- and broad-leaved forests) included variables related to climate, stand structure and 317 functional composition (Table 2). However, in forests broadly distributed throughout Europe 318 functional composition was not strongly supported in the final model (i.e. broad-leaved 319 deciduous and other needle-leaved forests, see ΔAIC in Table 2). Tree growth responses to 320 stand structure were stronger than those observed for climate (see the largest increase in AIC 321 when stand structure effect was dropped from the full models, Table 2). All of the models 322 produced unbiased estimates of tree growth (i.e. slopes of predicted versus observed values 323 were all close to 1) and the explained variance (R^2) ranged from 43% for broad-leaved 324 deciduous forests to 54% for other needle-leaved evergreen forests (Table 2). 325

Functional diversity and identity were particularly important determinants of tree 326 growth in Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen forests followed by Mediterranean broad-327 leaved evergreen forests (see Table 2). Tree growth increased slightly with functional diversity 328 in all forest types (Fig. 2a), and strongly with functional identity based on leaf mass per area in 329 Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen forests (Fig. 2b). Functional diversity also indirectly 330 modified tree growth responses to stand tree density in Mediterranean forests (see Table 2 and 331 Fig. 3a) and to potential evapotranspiration in broad-leaved deciduous forests (Table 2 and Fig. 332 3b). Functionally diverse forests experienced lower effects on demography of the extremes of 333 334 density or potential evapotranspiration.

335

336 Climatic, structural and functional composition influence on tree mortality

The final mortality models included variables related to climate (potential evapotranspiration and temperature anomalies), stand structure (i.e. stand basal area and mean d.b.h.) and functional identity (Table 2). The influence of stand structure on mortality was larger than climate and functional identity (see Δ AIC in Table 2). All of the models produced unbiased estimates of tree mortality and explained variance (R²) ranged from 11% for broad-leaved deciduous forests to 34% for Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen forests (Table 2).

Tree mortality was not influenced by functional diversity (see $\triangle AIC \le 2$ when FD was 344 removed from the full model in Table 2), whilst functional identity, based on leaf mass per 345 area, had a strong influence, with a relative importance similar to that of potential 346 evapotranspiration (Table 2). We observed maximum stand mortality towards high values of 347 leaf mass per area (i.e. forests dominated by needle-leaved species, see Fig. 2c). Our results 348 suggest that mortality responses to environmental conditions could vary depending on 349 functional diversity in needle-leaved and broad-leaved deciduous forests (see β parameters in 350 351 Table 2). The positive relationship between stand tree density and tree mortality was lower in more diverse Mediterranean needle-leaved forests (see Fig. 3c). Furthermore, functional 352 diversity reduced the influence of potential evapotranspiration on tree mortality in broad-leaved 353 deciduous and other needle-leaved evergreen forests, and temperature anomalies in 354 Mediterranean and other needle-leaved evergreen forests (Fig. 3a). 355

356

357 Climatic, structural and functional composition influence on sapling abundance

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Climate variables were particularly important for determining sapling abundance patterns in all forest types, followed by functional composition and stand structure variables, although mean d.b.h. in broad-leaved deciduous forests and stand tree density in Mediterranean needleleaved evergreen forests were not supported in the most parsimonious model (Δ AIC in Table 2). All of the models produced unbiased estimates of sapling abundance and explained variance ranged from 9% for Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen forests to 25% for other needleleaved evergreen forests (Table 2).

The abundance of saplings was strongly influenced by functional diversity and identity, 366 with a comparable importance to temperature anomaly and stand structure (see strength of 367 evidence through ΔAIC in Table 2). Sapling abundance increased with functional diversity, 368 particularly in evergreen forests (Fig. 2b). Maximum sapling abundance occurred at low values 369 370 of functional identity based on leaf mass per area (i.e. stands dominated by broad-leaved species), except in needle-leaved evergreen forests broadly distributed in Europe (Fig. 2e). 371 Functional diversity generally did not cause modification of sapling abundance responses to 372 373 environmental conditions (see Table 3). In other needle-leaved evergreen forests broadly distributed across Europe, however, high tree diversity reduced sapling abundance responses 374 to potential evapotranspiration and temperature anomaly (Fig. 3a,b). 375

376 **DISCUSSION**

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378 Demographic responses to functional diversity

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Our results suggest that functional diversity could directly influence tree growth and sapling 380 abundance, while it was not supported for mortality responses. The enhanced tree growth 381 observed with functional diversity is congruent with previous studies that found a positive 382 effect of species richness on wood production across European forests (Vilà et al., 2013), and 383 particularly those suggesting a large effect of diversity in Mediterranean forests (Ratcliffe et 384 al., 2016; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014a). The influence of diversity on demography could be due 385 to complementarity mechanisms, which can be particularly strong in water-limited 386 387 Mediterranean forests. As a proxy of potential complementarity effects, we used functional diversity based on wood density, maximum tree height and seed mass. These traits have been 388 identified as key for plant performance and indicators of life history strategies (Hooper *et al.*, 389 390 2005; Swenson et al., 2012). Increases in functional diversity could be due to increases in the presence of individuals with contrasting functional traits (e.g. pine-oak mixed forests), which 391 are particularly frequent in the Mediterranean and suggest niche partitioning is a plausible 392 explanation of the positive effect of diversity in Mediterranean water-limited forests (Poorter 393 et al., 2012; Carnicer et al., 2013). 394

Our results support the existence of a positive relationship between functional diversity and sapling abundance in all the forest types studied (Table 2), suggesting that complementarity mechanisms may be driven by niche partitioning and facilitation processes. In addition, congruent with other studies (see Liang *et al.* 2007), we found tree diversity to have a greater influence on sapling abundance than tree growth or mortality (Fig. 2). Sapling abundance in broadleaved deciduous forests was relatively unresponsive to functional diversity, but greater 401 sapling abundance was observed in conifer-dominated and Mediterranean broad-leaved forests (Fig. 2). The strong demographic responses observed in conifer forests suggest that the 402 abundance of saplings is favoured when there is a coexistence of functionally diverse species, 403 404 which ultimately depends on climate, management and land use history (e.g. pine-oak dominance in the Mediterranean region, Zavala & Zea, 2004; Sheffer, 2012). The successional 405 status was not available from all the inventories, however, we controlled for stand-structure 406 (i.e. including density and size related effects), and the forest-type classification used is related 407 to the general successional status of different species and their coexistence. Thus, further 408 409 increments in functional diversity may be due to changes in the successional status with an increasing number of species and functional groups, which could lead to higher recruitment 410 411 success promoting facilitation (Zavala et al., 2011).

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413 **Demographic responses to functional identity**

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We observed the greatest mortality rates at high levels of leaf mass per area (i.e. stands 415 dominated by needle-leaved species), but the highest abundance of saplings occurred at low 416 values of leaf mass per area (i.e. stands dominated by broad-leaved species, see Fig. 2). These 417 results suggest that stands with a large proportion of conifers experienced the greatest mortality 418 rates, as has been already observed at large spatial scales (e.g. Ruiz-Benito et al., 2013). A 419 420 possible explanation is that needle-leaved species have generally shorter life spans than broadleaved species and are less shade-tolerant (Poorter et al., 2012). Moreover, conifers have been 421 often planted at high densities, which could underlie the low abundance of saplings and high 422 mortality rates (e.g. Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012, 2013). In addition, our results suggest that stands 423 dominated by broad-leaved species experience larger abundances of saplings in all the forest 424 types studied (see Fig. 2 and Table 1, see also Vayreda et al., 2013). An exception was found 425

for conifers widely distributed in Europe, which showed higher abundance of saplings in stands
dominated by conifers rather than broad-leaved species. These are forests dominated by *Pinus sylvestris* and *Pinus nigra*, which can constitute successional end-points under severe
environmental conditions, such as cold climates at high altitude or shallow and rocky soils (e.g.
Zavala & Zea, 2004).

Altogether, our results suggest that some Mediterranean needle-leaved forests may be 431 experiencing the most important changes in species dominance because of the high mortality 432 in conifer dominated stands and the high abundance of saplings observed in broadleaved 433 dominated forests (Fig. 2). This may lead to increased dominance of oak species, which agrees 434 with previous studies that found a severe limitation in recruitment for *Pinus* species, and an 435 expansion in Quercus species recruitment (Carnicer et al., 2014). Furthermore, we found 436 437 climate and functional identity to be more important for the abundance of saplings than stand structure in all forest types studied (Table 2). This finding may be due to the large climatic 438 gradient covered and the influence of functional identity, which might reflect a successional 439 440 trajectory along large climatic gradients (e.g. Ratcliffe *et al.*, 2016). These results are congruent with the observed increase in sapling abundance in broad-leaved forests and increase in 441 mortality rates in needle-leaved forests. Yet, further studies seeking the underlying drivers of 442 multiple demographic processes and their effects on forest composition are needed to better 443 understand the direction and conditions for changes in vegetation. 444

445

446 Functional diversity underpins demographic responses to environmental conditions

447

448 Our models provide evidence of different demographic responses to tree density depending on 449 the diversity of Meditteranean forests (see Table 2), with a smaller effect of extreme tree 450 densities on growth and mortality in more diverse forests (see Fig. 3). At high stand density 451 increased mortality and decreased growth has been observed in European forests, probably due to high levels of competition for resources (Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2011; Ruiz-Benito et al., 452 2013). At low densities a combination of competition for limiting resources and a greater 453 454 exposure might boost interactions between climate and stand structure (e.g. Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014b). Our result is consistent with previous studies that found that the positive effect of 455 species richness on productivity was mediated by stand basal area (see Vilà et al., 2013) and 456 water availability (Pretzsch et al., 2016). The trend observed suggests that diverse stands are 457 able to pack more densely without showing strong declines in growth or increased mortality, 458 which could be due to greater crown plasticity in mixed-species forests (see also Jucker et al., 459 2015). Furthermore, our finding agrees with studies that found a strong effect of diversity 460 promoting water use efficiency in drought prone environments (Grossiord et al., 2014b; Jucker 461 462 et al., 2016), this mechanism would be particularly important at high densities in Mediterranean forests. 463

We also found support for an effect of functional diversity ameliorating the negative 464 effect of climate (i.e. potential evapotranspiration) and recent warming (i.e. temperature 465 anomalies) on tree mortality and sapling abundance in some forests (see Table 2). These forests 466 are widely distributed across Europe (i.e. broad-leaved deciduous and other needle-leaved 467 evergreen forests) covering Mediterranean to boreal biomes (Fig. 1) and, therefore, 468 experiencing a large gradient in potential evapotranspiration and temperature anomalies (see 469 Fig. S2). We observed that tree diversity may modify demographic responses at the extremes 470 of potential evapotranspiration and recent climate warming was particularly important for 471 coniferous forests dominated by Pinus sylvestris and Pinus nigra species. A large impact of 472 climate change has been predicted on the demography and distribution of these species, 473 particularly in mesic climates and rear edge distributions (Benito-Garzón et al., 2013; Carnicer 474 et al., 2014). Relatively low biomass increments have been reported in Mediterranean and 475

boreal forests due to the effect of both water availability and minimum temperatures (RuizBenito *et al.*, 2014b). Thus, diversity modification of demographic responses to extreme
climates may be particularly important in these forests where large impacts of increased
temperature and reduced water availability are expected (e.g. Frank *et al.*, 2015).

480

481 Potential implications of diversity loss and species dominance under changing climate

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Altogether our results support the diversity hypothesis, suggesting that complementarity 483 mechanisms play a key role in forest dynamics, in addition to previous studies that mainly 484 focused on productivity or biomass (see e.g. Morin et al., 2011; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014a). The 485 importance of tree diversity for the functioning of European forests could have been 486 underestimated as we show that it can affect multiple demographic processes, including 487 demographic responses to environmental conditions across Europe. We observed larger growth 488 rates and sapling abundance in more functionally diverse forests across all European forests. 489 Furthermore, the indirect effects of functional diversity on demographic responses to 490 environmental variation supported in our model results also highlight the crucial task of 491 maintaining functionally diverse forests. Here, we used growth and mortality rates based on 492 basal area dynamics instead of biomass since basal area is a reliable proxy of biomass (e.g. 493 Slick et al., 2010), although further studies based on biomass may provide additional 494 495 indications of effects of functional diversity on plant performance through complementarity mechanisms. 496

497 The influence of functional identity on demographic processes confirms the importance 498 of the mass ratio hypothesis (i.e. dominance of species and contrasting functional groups). The 499 variation in mortality and sapling abundance responses along functional identity gradients in 500 Mediterranean pine forests suggests that forest dynamics could lead to a higher dominance of broad-leaved species in these forests. Our results highlight the importance of further studies
seeking to better understand underlying drivers and mechanisms of regional changes in forest
dominance, particularly understanding mechanisms of species coexistence and diversity
maintenance under a changing environment at large-spatial scales.

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506

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519

520 **Biosketch**

521

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761 **APPENDICES**

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1000 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 1001 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article at the
- 1002 publisher's website:
- 1003
- 1004 Appendix S1 Further details regarding the National Forest Inventories.
- 1005 Appendix S2 Further methodological details.
- 1006 Table S1 Main characteristics of the sampling design from the five National Forest Inventories
- 1007 used in this study.
- 1008 **Table S2** List of species present in the plots of the National Forest Inventories included in the
- analyses.
- **Table S3** List of initial set of 27 climatic predictors.
- 1011 **Table S4** Trait data used in the study.
- 1012 Table S5 Estimated parameters and 2-unit support intervals (in brackets) for the best stand
- 1013 growth and mortality models of four forest types.
- 1014 **Fig. S1** Spatial distribution of the response variables in the National Forest Inventories.
- 1015 Fig. S2 Spatial distribution of the predictor variables in the National Forest Inventories.
- 1016 Fig. S3 Box-whisker plots of tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance along
- 1017 explanatory variables.
- 1018 Fig. S4 Mean value of the functional traits depending on leaf characteristics used to define
- 1019 forest types.
- 1020 Fig. S5 Histograms of tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance.

Table 1. Mean and 99% percentiles [min., max.] of tree growth (growth, $cm^2 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$), tree mortality (mortality, $cm^2 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$), sapling abundance (No. saplings ha⁻¹), stand tree density (No. trees ha⁻¹), mean d.b.h. (mm), potential evapotranspiration (mm), absolute temperature anomaly (°C), functional diversity (adimensional), and functional identity based on leaf mass per area (g m⁻²) for each forest type. Number of plots and main species composition of each forest type (and percentage represented) is also given.

	Broad-leaved deciduous	Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen	Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen	Other needle- leaved evergreen		
Growth (cm ² ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	40.99 [0.73, 172.41]	13.63 [0.3, 129.95]	36.04 [1.07, 154.17]	51.43 [0.53, 228.62]		
Mortality (% zeros) (cm ² ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)	7.86 (79.11%) [0, 153.82]	3.81 (86.58%) [0, 117.19]	16.97 (68.29%) [0, 245.32]	8.22 (80.82%) [0, 175.05]		
Sapling abundance (% zeros) (No. saplings ha ⁻¹)	1509 (44.31%) [0, 21759]	1169 (31.03%) [0, 6629]	1169 (31.03%) 1018 (25.09%) [0, 6629] [0, 6366]			
Density (No. trees ha ⁻¹)	393 [5, 2117]	184 [5, 1394]	310 [9, 1689]	487 [14, 2275]		
Mean d.b.h. (mm)	282.5 [103, 902]	303.19 [102, 828]	238.73 [108, 547]	222.71 [103, 589]		
Potential evapotranspiration (mm)	810 [438, 1229]	1107 [781, 1349]	1050 [771, 1310]	739 [432, 1134]		
Temperature anomaly (°C)	0.4 [-0.07, 0.92]	0.53 [0.25, 0.87]	0.54 [0.28, 0.88]	0.44 [-0.25, 1]		
Functional diversity	0.06 [0, 0.2]	0.03 [0, 0.25]	0.02 [0, 0.2]	0.04 [0, 0.2]		
Functional identity leaf mass per area (g m ⁻²)	84 [47, 185]	152 [107, 234]	286 [182, 412]	196 [84, 268]		
No. plots (% represented)	10,553 (19.42 %)	9,490 (17.50 %)	11,057 (20.39 %)	21,080 (38.88 %)		
Composition (% represented)	Fagus sylvatica, Quercus robur, Q. pyrenaica, Q. petraea, Castanea sativa, Q. faginea, (70%)	Quercus ilex, Q. suber (89.8%)	Pinus halepensis, P. pinea, P. pinaster (95%)	P. sylvestris, Pinus nigra, Picea abies (81%)		

1028	Table 2. Comparisons of alternative models of tree growth (cm ² ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹), tree mortality (cm ² ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹) and sapling abundance (No. saplings ha ⁻¹)
1029	for the forest types studied using Akaike Information Criterion (AIC).

	ΔΑΙΟ					_							
	Functional composition												
		Climate effect		Structural effect		effect							
Response variable and forest type	Full*	No PET	No TA	No STD	No d _m	No FD	No FI _{lma}	β_{PET}	β_{TA}	β_{STD}	\mathbb{R}^2	Slope	NP
Tree growth								<u> </u>		<u> </u>		<u> </u>	
Broad-leaved deciduous	0	676	220	2393	130	3	0	Y	Ν	Ν	0.43	1.00	12
Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen	0	329	84	2549	82	811	3	Ν	Ν	Y	0.53	1.00	14
Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen	0	182	3	4568	77	10	1566	Ν	Ν	Y	0.54	1.00	14
Other needle-leaved evergreen	20	3772	134	6769	57	0	19	Ν	Ν	Ν	0.48	1.00	11
Tree mortality													
Broad-leaved deciduous	1	36	18	183	110	0	25	Y	Ν	Ν	0.11	1.00	13
Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen	0	31	5	107	53	1	13	Ν	Ν	Ν	0.34	1.00	12
Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen	5	5	21	871	374	0	42	Ν	Y	Y	0.31	1.00	14
Other needle-leaved evergreen	0	215	32	348	177	0	57	Ν	Y	Ν	0.22	1.00	14
Sapling abundance													
Broad-leaved deciduous	0	48	26	4	0	4	55	Ν	Ν	Ν	0.13	1.01	11
Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen	3	183	0	8	121	5	5	Ν	Ν	Ν	0.25	1.00	11
Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen	0	145	22	0	9	30	30	Ν	Ν	Ν	0.09	1.02	13
Other needle-leaved evergreen	0	289	19	79	3	77	36	Y	Y	Ν	0.14	1.01	15

1030 The full models include the effects of potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm), temperature anomaly (TA, °C), stand tree density (STD, No. trees 1031 ha⁻¹), mean d.b.h. (d_m, mm), functional diversity (FD, adimensional) and functional identity based on leaf mass per area (FI_{LMA}, g m⁻²). The models 1032 'No' ignore the effect of the explanatory variable related. The final predictor variables included in each model are given in bold based on AIC 1033 comparison for tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance set of models. AIC comparisons (ΔAIC_i) are shown for each set of models (i.e.

- 1034 tree growth, tree mortality or sapling abundance) through AIC differences of each model (AIC_i) with the model with minimum AIC (AIC_{min}): ΔAIC_i
- 1035 = $AIC_i AIC_{min}$. The best model is the one with $\Delta AIC_i = AIC_{min} = 0$. The β columns indicate whether (Y, yes; N, no) the best model included a term
- 1036 that allows evapotranspiration (β_{PET}), temperature anomaly (β_{TA}) or stand tree density (β_{STD}) to vary with functional diversity, changing the breath
- 1037 of the function (see Eqn. (6)). NP is the number of parameters of the final model. The slope and $R^2 (1 SEE/SST)$ for the relationship between
- 1038 predicted and observed tree growth, tree mortality and sapling abundance are also given.

1039 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Spatial distribution of the National Forest Inventory plots for the forest types
used in this study and the underlying biome distribution (modified from Olson *et al.*,
2001).

Figure 2 Predicted potential tree growth ($cm^2 ha^{-1} vr^{-1}$), tree mortality ($cm^2 ha^{-1} vr^{-1}$), and 1043 sapling abundance (No. saplings ha⁻¹) by functional diversity (adimensional; a, and b for 1044 growth and sapling abundance, respectively); and functional identity based on leaf mass 1045 per area (g m^2 ; c, d, and e, respectively) for each forest type. The forest types include 1046 broad-leaved deciduous, Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen, Mediterranean needle-1047 leaved evergreen, and other needle-leaved evergreen forests. 95% confidence intervals 1048 are represented in grey. The predicted potential responses were computed between the 1049 minimum and maximum value of the explanatory variable of interest observed in each 1050 1051 forest type (see parameter values in Table S5) and the scalars containing the rest of explanatory variables fixed at 1 (see Eqn. (1)). 1052

Figure 3 Predicted potential tree growth (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), tree mortality (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹), and 1053 sapling abundance (No. saplings ha^{-1}) by (a) potential evapotranspiration (mm), (b) 1054 temperature anomalies (°C), and (c) stand tree density (No. trees ha⁻¹) for each forest type 1055 at two combinations of functional diversity: monospecific forests (i.e. FD = 0) and diverse 1056 1057 forests (i.e. FD = 0.2). Dashed lines indicates that the indirect effects of functional diversity determining demographic responses to environment were supported the best 1058 model. Confidence intervals are shown in grey. The predicted potential responses were 1059 computed between the minimum and maximum value of the explanatory variable of 1060 interest observed in each forest type (see parameter values in Table S5) and the scalars 1061 1062 containing the rest of explanatory variables fixed at 1 (see Eqn. (1)).



Figure 1.



Figure 2.



Figure 3.