
This is the **accepted version** of the journal article:

Margalef Marrase, Jordi; Bagaria Morato, Guillem; Lloret Maya, Francisco.
«Canopy self-replacement in *Pinus sylvestris* rear-edge populations after drought-
induced die-off». *Forest ecology and management*, Vol. 521 (October 2022), art.
120427. DOI 10.1016/j.foreco.2022.120427

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1 **Title:**

2 Canopy self-replacement in *Pinus sylvestris* rear-edge populations after drought-induced die-
3 off.

4 **Running title:** *P. sylvestris* self-replacement after die-off event

5

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16 **Summary**

17 In recent years, *Pinus sylvestris* die-off and mortality events have occurred across all its range of
18 distribution, usually associated with recurrent droughts induced by climate change. A shift in terms
19 of canopy dominance by other better adapted co-existing species can be expected, especially in
20 populations located close to their climatic tolerance limits. Herein, we test along a local elevational
21 gradient whether canopy opening resulting from die-off favours the growth of a non-dominant co-
22 existing tree species (*Q. pubescens*) established in the understorey, in comparison to *P. sylvestris*.
23 We also test whether the growth of both species is associated with local climatic suitability for
24 these species or, alternatively, with direct measures of micro-climatic variables. Finally, the effect
25 on tree growth of other micro-local factors such as competition, canopy closure or micro-
26 topography was tested. Understorey tree growth was overall enhanced by canopy opening resulting
27 from *P. sylvestris* die-off and defoliation, but this response was stronger in *P. sylvestris* trees,
28 supporting self-replacement of this species after the die-off. This higher growth rate is related to
29 modifications in micro-local climate (higher temperatures in the wettest quarter), Conversely, *Q.*
30 *pubescens* is less sensitive to micro-local climate conditions but it can grow faster than *P. sylvestris*
31 on stands with no canopy defoliation. In contrast, climatic suitability extracted from SDMs was
32 negatively related to understorey *P. sylvestris* growth and had no effect on *Q. pubescens*. These
33 contrasting results support observations at plot scale that *P. sylvestris* self-replacement is better
34 explained by local environmental conditions than by values of climatic suitability obtained from
35 regional-scale data-sets. Nevertheless, these climatic suitability measures remain consistent with
36 the overall pattern of replacement at seedling level observed at the rear edge of the species'
37 distribution. This study reveals that, at local scale, short-term shifts of species dominance will not
38 necessarily occur in the studied *P. sylvestris* forests. This finding reinforces the notion that micro-
39 local environment and species traits (i.e., light and temperature tolerance, life-history strategies)
40 modulate the resilience capacity in rear-edge populations that otherwise could be expected to be
41 prone to collapse.

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Anthropogenic global change is responsible for global warming, as well as being the main
44 cause of the increase in both the frequency and severity of extreme climatic events such as
45 droughts and heatwaves (IPCC, 2013; Trenberth et al., 2014). Forest die-off and mortality
46 (Allen et al., 2015; Anderegg et al., 2015) have been recorded across all the forested biomes in
47 parallel with recurrent regional droughts accompanied by high temperatures, probably induced
48 by the aforementioned global changes. The causes of such mortality are mainly related to
49 physiological mechanisms related to water deficit, such as hydraulic failure and carbon
50 starvation (Adams, Zeppel, Anderegg, Hartmann, Landhäusser, Tissue, Huxman, McDowell,
51 et al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018), although other agents such as pests can also intervene (f.e.
52 Lloret and Kitzberger 2018). From a demographic perspective, forest resilience after episodes
53 of drought-induced mortality is largely determined by the ability of non-dominant trees or
54 saplings previously established in the understorey to replace canopy trees affected by die-off
55 (Batllori et al., 2020; Martínez-Vilalta & Lloret, 2016). In turn, this replacement could be
56 determined by the suitability of climate conditions for the growth of potential replacing species
57 and by stand structural characteristics, reflecting resource availability and species interactions
58 (Lloret, Jaime, Margalef-Marrase, Pérez-Navarro, & Batllori, 2021).

59 Species distribution models (SDMs) are statistical models that provide the probability of
60 appearance, by relating species occurrence to environmental spatial data, often of a bioclimatic
61 nature (Guisan & Thuiller, 2005). They can therefore be used to characterize species'
62 bioclimatic niches and thus the suitability of the climatic conditions that populations experience
63 across their distribution ranges. Moreover, climatic suitability derived from SDMs is habitually
64 used to predict vegetation dynamics under changing climatic conditions (Dobrowski et al.,
65 2011; Koo et al., 2017). At a regional scale, a relationship between climatic suitability derived
66 from SDMs and drought-induced die-off has been established (Lloret & Kitzberger, 2018;

67 Margalef-Marrase et al., 2020). Moreover, climatic suitability has proved useful at community
68 level for comparing the responses in different co-occurring species to extreme events driven
69 by climate change (Pérez Navarro et al., 2018; Sapes et al., 2017). These models could therefore
70 serve as a tool for standardizing population responses in the face of extreme climatic
71 conditions, which in turn determine their capacity for resilience. Significantly, micro-local
72 environment (Thuiller et al., 2014) and yearly climatic variability (Perez-Navarro et al., 2020)
73 – not captured in most climate databases – could modulate demographic responses at local
74 scale. While suitability indices can better explain populations responses at regional scale than
75 climatic variables, at local scale climatic and bioclimatic variables such as mean annual
76 precipitation, monthly temperature or monthly precipitation have been associated with tree
77 growth and survival (Bogino, Fernández Nieto, & Bravo, 2009; Hereş et al., 2012).

78 In the last two decades, *Pinus sylvestris* L. (Scots Pine) forests have experienced die-off and
79 mortality events across the distribution range of this species. This phenomenon has been
80 attributed to the increasing of both temperature and drought recurrence and intensity resulting
81 from climate change (Sánchez-Salguero et al., 2012; Thabeet et al., 2009; Vacchiano,
82 Garbarino, Borgogno Mondino, & Motta, 2012). Tree mortality has particularly impacted *P.*
83 *syvestris* populations living on the southernmost edge of its distribution in the Iberian
84 Peninsula (Galiano et al., 2010; Matías & Jump, 2012; Sánchez-Salguero et al., 2012), which
85 are expected to suffer climatic conditions closer to the species' tolerance limit (Sánchez-
86 Salguero et al., 2017). Furthermore, other local non-climatic factors such as stand structure
87 (Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2011), pests (Jaime et al., 2019), mistletoe infestation and soil quality can
88 exacerbate the progression of die-off (Galiano, Martínez-Vilalta, & Lloret, 2010). In these rear-
89 edge populations of *P. sylvestris*, resilience determined by self-replacement following
90 mortality can be affected by a further reduction in micro-local climatic suitability due to the
91 structural characteristics of stands after canopy loss. In contrast, the establishment of species

92 other than the previously dominant *P. sylvestris*, such as *Quercus* spp., may be enhanced
93 (Galiano et al., 2013), probably because they find better climatic suitability under these stand-
94 level structural changes. However, the successful emergence and establishment of seedlings
95 cannot be directly translated into forest canopy shifts due to species replacement. The survival
96 rates of *P. sylvestris* seedlings are usually extremely low, and they are substantially affected by
97 micro-local habitat conditions, particularly fluctuating herbivore pressure (Castro et al., 2004).
98 In conclusion, the early stages of population establishment, though a necessary step for long-
99 term dynamics, provide little information about short-term forest dynamics after die-off
100 episodes, which should be more closely linked to the fate of saplings and sub-canopy trees
101 (Batllori et al., 2021; Lloret et al., 2021).

102 In this study, we aim to elucidate tree-level growth, which probably determines self-
103 replacement or, alternatively, replacement by other existing tree species, in forests dominated
104 by *P. sylvestris* which have experienced drought-induced tree die-off and mortality. These
105 populations are situated in the Pre-Pyrenees (Northern Iberian Peninsula), which spread
106 through the southern limit of the *P. sylvestris* distribution range. Here, we use both climatic
107 suitability extracted from SDMs and micro-local bioclimatic variables directly measured in the
108 field to study the growth performance of trees belonging to different species and located in the
109 forest understorey. These growth patterns would help to predict the forest's short-term
110 dynamics at stand level. Specifically, we compare the individual growth of both *P. sylvestris*
111 and *Quercus pubescens* WILLD. living below the canopy of *P. sylvestris* trees that reacted to
112 drought in different ways, from total defoliation and dead to maintain green canopy and good
113 health. *Quercus pubescens* is a moderate shade-tolerant species (Niinemets & Valladares,
114 2006) with a climatic niche distinct from that of *P. sylvestris*, and it can therefore be assumed
115 to present a different suitability on the studied site (Terradas, Estevan, Solé, & Lloret, 2009).
116 We address the following questions:

- 117 1. Does the differing degree of the stand-level effect of drought on a canopy – from
118 complete defoliation to good health – influence the growth of trees of the dominant *P. sylvestris*
119 species and the accompanying *Q. pubescens* which are established in the understorey, thus
120 promoting self-replacement or, alternatively, replacement by oaks?
- 121 2. Are the die-off induced growth performances of *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens*
122 explained by shifts in micro-local climatic conditions, as estimated either by changes in
123 climatic suitability estimated from SDMs or by *in situ* meteorological records?
- 124 3. Does the relationship between the growth patterns of both species and the climatic
125 suitability derived from micro-local conditions change across the altitudinal gradient?
- 126 4. Are the different growth patterns of *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens* understorey trees
127 determined by stand-level features such as competition and soil quality, which in turn are
128 determined by drought-induced die-off?

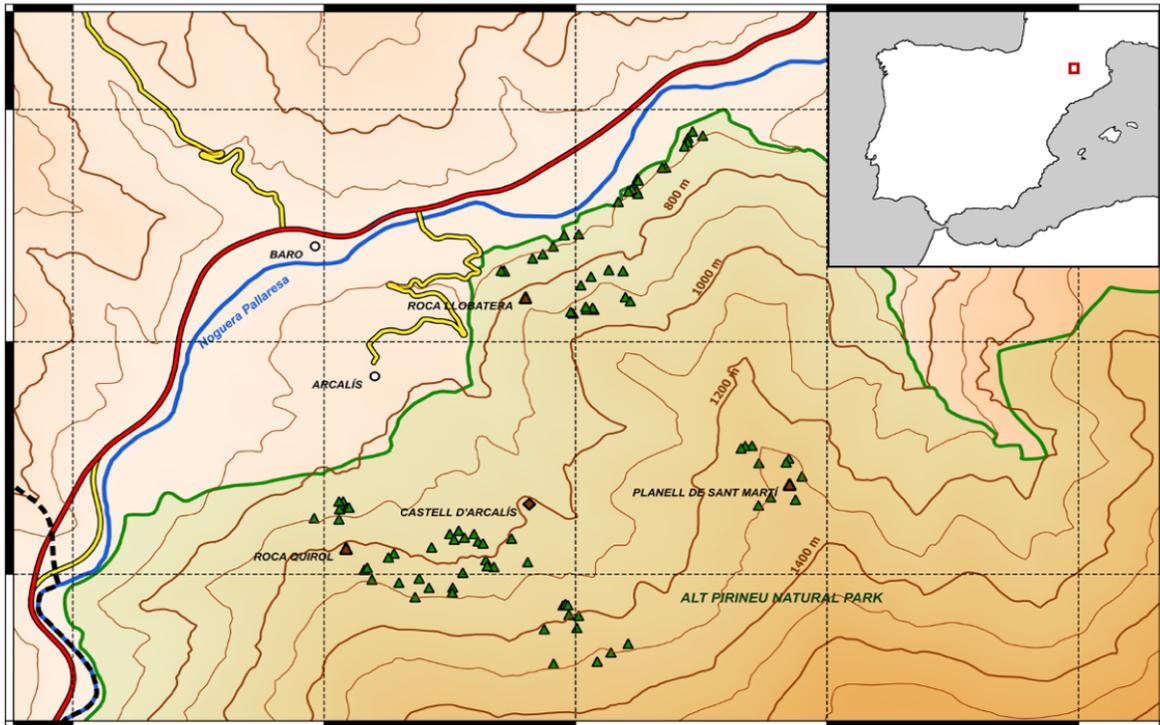
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130 **2. Material and methods**

131 **2.1. Study Area**

132 This study was conducted in a rear-edge population of *P. sylvestris* located in the Catalan Pre-
133 Pyrenees (Arcalís, Municipality of Soriguera, Spain, WGS84: 42° 20' 50" N, 1° 5' 20" E).
134 This forest covers a large altitudinal gradient (from 600 to 1,400 m a.s.l., Figure 1) on a North
135 aspect with a medium-to-high slope (10 to 50 % of slope, mean = 30%, see Table S1 of the
136 supplementary material). *Quercus pubescens* appears as a tree species accompanying *P.*
137 *sylvestris* across all the altitudinal gradient. Other species, such as *Quercus ilex* (holm oak) and
138 *Pinus nigra* (black pine), also occasionally appear in some stands. In these *P. sylvestris*
139 populations, die-off and mortality associated with drought has occurred in recent years,
140 particularly in the years 2005 (Galiano et al., 2010; Jol et al., 2009) and 2012 (Camarero et al.,

141 2018)). This mortality appears in small patches, and spread across the whole altitudinal
142 gradient.



143 **Figure 1:** Location of the 88 studied individual trees (green triangles) along the altitudinal gradient in Arcalís
144 Forest (Soriguera municipality, Spain).

145

146 2.2. Field data sampling

147 We selected 44 *P. sylvestris* and 44 *Q. pubescens* understorey trees (7.5 cm. < dbh < 22 cm.,
148 See Table S1 of the supplementary material) distributed throughout the elevation gradient. Half
149 of them (22 pines and 22 oaks) were growing under a healthy green canopy of *P. sylvestris* and
150 the other half were growing under a defoliated *P. sylvestris* canopy. The percentage of canopy
151 cover (estimated using a densiometer) was 44% units lower in plots with defoliated canopy
152 than in plots with green canopy (One-way ANOVA, $p < 0.001$, Figure S1). This defoliation
153 (hereafter, defoliated canopy) concurs with the die-off associated with the drought conditions
154 previously reported in this forest (Galiano et al 2010). We characterized the micro-local
155 environment around these sub-canopy trees by establishing 10-metre diameter plots centered
156 on each selected tree. We obtained topographic variables such as slope and orientation. Biotic

157 variables such as basal area (BA), species richness and understorey cover were also extracted
158 after performing a forest inventory in each plot. We also measured and identified all woody
159 individual plants with a 2.5 cm. < dbh inside each plot. Canopy closure was also measured
160 using a densiometer (Fiala, Garman, & Gray, 2006; Strickler, 1959). Finally, micro-local
161 climatic variables (temperature and air relative humidity) were extracted from data loggers
162 located in the north face of the bark of each selected tree 1.5 m above the ground. Tree growth
163 was measured using steel band dendrometers (model DS20, EMS Brno Company), following
164 the manufacturer's protocols, and placing all of them 1.3 m above the ground (breast height).
165 The growth periods considered were the following three years: 2017, 2018 and 2019.

166

167 **2.3. Competition and water availability**

168 Plant competition could affect tree growth, so at plot level we estimated competition by using
169 stand mean dbh, stand density and basal area (BA). For this purpose, the competition
170 experienced by the selected trees was estimated using the Hegyi competition index (Hegyi,
171 1974), a distance-dependent index that takes into account the size of the neighbouring trees and
172 their proximity to the selected trees. In our case, we considered all the trees within 5 metres.
173 We used Topographic Wetness Index (TWI, Beven & Kirkby, 1979), as a proxy for both the
174 soil water available to the plant (Galiano et al., 2010) and soil depth and quality (Moore, Lewis,
175 & Gallant, 1993). The TWI is a function of both the local slope and the upstream catchment
176 area of a given point. We therefore computed TWI using the plot's local slope, previously
177 captured in the field work, and the Digital Terrain Model (DTM) extracted from the Catalan
178 Cartographic and Geologic Institution (ICGC).

179

180

181 **2.4. Climatic Suitability Modelling and extrapolation to micro-local**
182 **environment**

183 Since *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens* have a wide range of distribution and our study was
184 focused on translating SDMs to micro-local conditions, we only considered occurrences in the
185 Iberian Peninsula (N = 10,383 and 2,511, respectively). These occurrences were extracted from
186 EU-Forest dataset (Mauri et al., 2017), which is based on almost 250,000 plots in the National
187 Forest Inventories of most European countries. We excluded the southernmost occurrences in
188 the Iberian Peninsula, which are considered a different infra-taxon (*P. sylvestris* var.
189 *nevadensis*) (Olmedo-Cobo et al., 2017) that probably presents different niche characteristics
190 due to local adaptations (Guisan et al., 2017).

191 We obtained SDM bioclimatic predictors from the CHELSA database version 2 (Fick &
192 Hijmans, 2017) with a spatial resolution of 30'' (~0.7 km² at 40° N), based on climatic data
193 from 1979-2013 period. To calibrate the model, we used the mean of six bioclimatic variables:
194 annual mean temperature (Bio 1), mean temperature of the wettest quarter (Bio 8), mean
195 temperature of the driest quarter (Bio 9), mean annual precipitation (Bio 12), precipitation
196 seasonality (Bio 15) and precipitation in the wettest quarter (Bio 16). We selected these six
197 variables following ecological criteria. Precipitation and temperature usually have an influence
198 on the growth and survival of both *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens* (Carlisle & Brown, 1968;
199 Pasta, Rigo, Caudullo, & Commission, 2016). Summer precipitation and temperature during
200 the winter are also relevant in *P. sylvestris* growth (Bogino et al., 2009; Misi, Puchałka,
201 Pearson, Robertson, & Koprowski, 2019). Summer and winter correspond to the wettest and
202 driest quarters, respectively, on our study site for the 1960-1990 climate period (Catalan
203 Meteorological Station Network (Meteocat)).

204 The SDM algorithm used to calculate climatic suitability for both *Q. pubescens* and *P.*
205 *sylvestris* was Boosted Regression Tree (BRT), applying the Gbm R package 2.1.3 (Ridgeway,

206 2007). We built SDMs following the standard criteria in the literature (Barbet-Massin et al.,
207 2012; Elith et al., 2008; Pérez Navarro et al., 2018) and the calibration of the models was
208 repeated three times using k-fold cross-validation with three different training and test datasets.
209 The final models' output was based on all the occurrences. Model evaluations were based on
210 the area under curve (AUC; Hanley and McNeil 1982) and on the variance explained, as R
211 squared coefficient (see Table S2 of the supplementary material). These calculations were
212 performed with the caret R package (Kuhn & others, 2008).

213 To capture the micro-local climatic environment, we generated our own bioclimatic variables
214 (Bio 1, Bio 8 and Bio 9) using data-logger temperature records, which were captured directly
215 for each tree location. Then, when extrapolating SDMs for each coordinate corresponding to
216 the location of each studied tree we generated mean Climatic Suitability values for the studied
217 period (2017-2019) by including the bioclimatic variables extracted from the data-loggers,
218 instead of the CHELSA ones. Some data-loggers experienced occasional losses of data due to
219 battery exhaustion or external incidents, such as animal interaction. To fill such gaps in the
220 data, we built a Generalised Linear Model (GLM) to find the relationship between recorded
221 climatic data in the plot and the climatic registrations in the three nearest plots. The model was
222 then translated to those dates without data.

223

224 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

225 To test whether the effect of die-off on the canopy induced micro-local environmental changes
226 along the altitudinal gradient, we built GLMs with the mean temperature of the driest quarter
227 the mean temperature of the wettest quarter as the response variables and the elevation and type
228 of plot (defoliated vs green canopy) as the explanatory variables. We also built a LM to
229 elucidate whether Climatic Suitability varies across the altitudinal gradient for each species.

230 We also used one-way ANOVA to check whether plots with defoliated canopies had less
231 canopy closure.

232 Two-way ANOVA with the HSD Tukey test was used to compare tree growth between the two
233 studied species in the two different types of plots (defoliated vs green canopy). We used total
234 Basal Area increment (BAI) during the three recorded years (2017, 2018, and 2019) as the
235 response variable (tree growth). We preferred BAI to other variables such as radial increment
236 because BAI is probably both more climate- and site-dependent (Pan, Tajchman, &
237 Kochenderfer, 1997). Normality assumptions were tested using the Shapiro-Wilk test. To meet
238 the assumptions of normality, BAI was log-transformed (Shapiro-Wilk test: $w = 0.98$, $p =$
239 0.2252).

240 Furthermore, GLMs were used to study the influence of micro-local variables on tree growth
241 (BAI). We built two full models that included all the captured variables. First, we built a model
242 (climatic suitability-based GLM) with TWI, BA, Hegyi index, canopy closure, species
243 richness, plot type (defoliated vs green canopy), focal species (*Q. pubescens*, *P. sylvestris*), dbh
244 and micro-local climatic suitability as explanatory variables. All the interactions between
245 explanatory variables were introduced as well. Second, we built the same full model (climatic
246 variables-based GLM), but using the three bioclimatic variables Bio1, Bio8 and Bio9 (annual
247 mean temperature, mean temperature of the wettest quarter and mean temperature of the driest
248 quarter, respectively) captured in the field, instead of the micro-local climatic suitability
249 derived from SDM. The final models were selected according to a stepwise procedure based
250 on the Akaike information criterion (AIC), using the MuMIn R package (Barton, 2018).

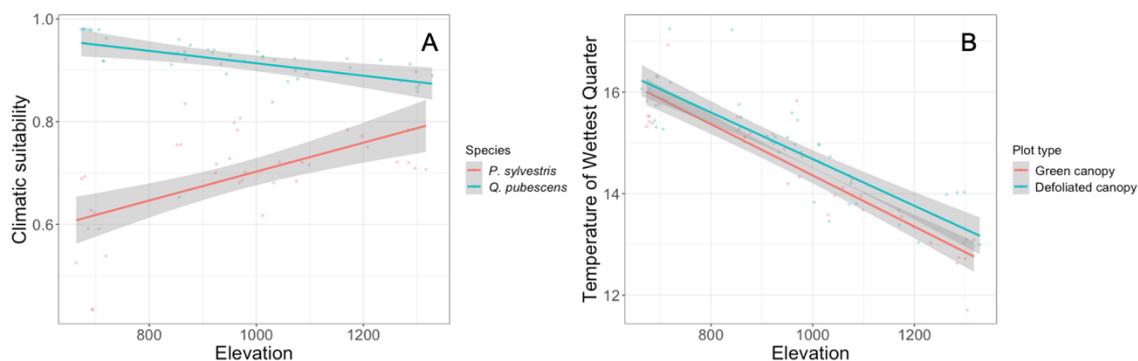
251

252 3. Results

253 3.1. Effect of canopy defoliation and elevation on species climatic 254 suitability and micro-local climate

255 *Pinus sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens* showed significant differences in climatic suitability on our
256 study site. Across all the altitudinal gradient, *Q. pubescens* has higher climatic suitability than
257 *P. sylvestris* (Figure 2A, ANOVA, $p < 0.001$, Table S2 of the supplementary material). Indeed,
258 the climatic suitability for *P. sylvestris* increased with elevation, while the climatic suitability
259 for *Q. pubescens* decreased (Figure 2A, Table S4 of the supplementary material).

260 Canopy defoliation had an effect on micro-local temperature, significantly increasing the
261 temperature of the wettest quarter; this effect was consistent across the altitudinal gradient
262 (Figure 2B, supplementary material Table S5).



263 **Figure 2.** A: Relationship between species climatic suitability and elevation for *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens*
264 (differentiated by colour). B: Relationship between mean temperature of the wettest quarter (°C) and elevation for
265 green and defoliated canopies, showing higher temperature under defoliated canopy through the elevation
266 gradient. Both relationships were obtained from the climatic suitability-based GLM.

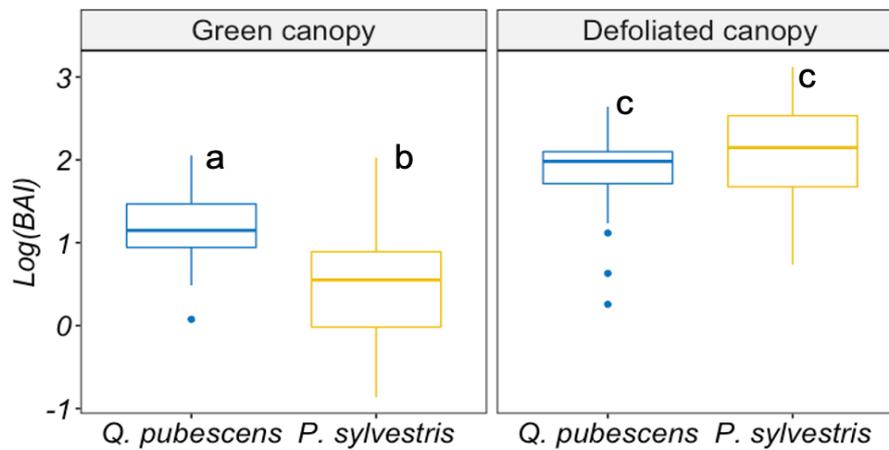
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268 3.2. Effect of canopy defoliation on the growth of sub-canopy trees

269 The BAI of the understorey trees was significantly higher under dead and defoliated canopy
270 (Two-Way ANOVA: Sum. Sq =24.29, $p < 0.001$, Table S3 of the supplementary material).

271 Although BAI was not significantly different between species overall (ANOVA; Sum sq. =
272 0.42, $p = 0.303$), the growth increase under defoliated canopy was different between *P.*

273 *sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens*, as supported by a significant interaction between the state of the
 274 canopy and the understorey species identity (ANOVA; Sum sq. = 4.14, $p = 0.002$. Accordingly,
 275 the increase on BAI between trees established beneath defoliated and green canopy was greater
 276 in *P. sylvestris* than in *Q. pubescens*. (Figure 3, Table S3). All the intra-specific comparisons
 277 between trees growing beneath green and defoliated canopies and all the inter-specific
 278 comparisons of trees growing beneath a given type of canopy were significant (Table S3).



279
 280 **Figure 3:** Boxplot panels indicating tree growth (log-transformed BAI) of understorey *Q. pubescens* and *P.*
 281 *sylvestris* individuals under green canopy (left panel) and defoliated canopy (right panel). Blue boxes represent
 282 *Q. pubescens* BAI and yellow boxes represent *P. sylvestris* BAI. The different letters indicate significant
 283 differences between species and type of canopy. The letters (a, b, c) indicate groups with significant differences
 284 according to the post-hoc Tukey test (supplementary material, Table S2).

285 **Table 1:** The results of the best-fitted climatic suitability-based GLM (first GLM) with BAI as response variable.
 286 The explanatory variables included in the model are: tree diameter, species identity (*Q. pubescens* or *P. sylvestris*),
 287 canopy closure and climatic suitability. Both interactions between species identity and canopy closure and climatic
 288 suitability were included. Variance explained as r^2 are included in the last row.

	Estimate	Std. Error	p
Intercept	3.736435	0.594848	<0.00001
Diameter	0.053408	0.018145	0.00426
Species [Q. pubescens]	-3.259654	0.817032	0.000147
Canopy closure	-0.033207	0.003874	<0.00001
Climatic suitability	-1.500603	0.690677	0.032804
Species [Q. pubescens] * Canopy closure	0.018992	0.005113	0.000378
Species [Q. pubescens] * Climatic suitability	2.92263	1.059453	0.007209
			$r^2 = 0.6492$

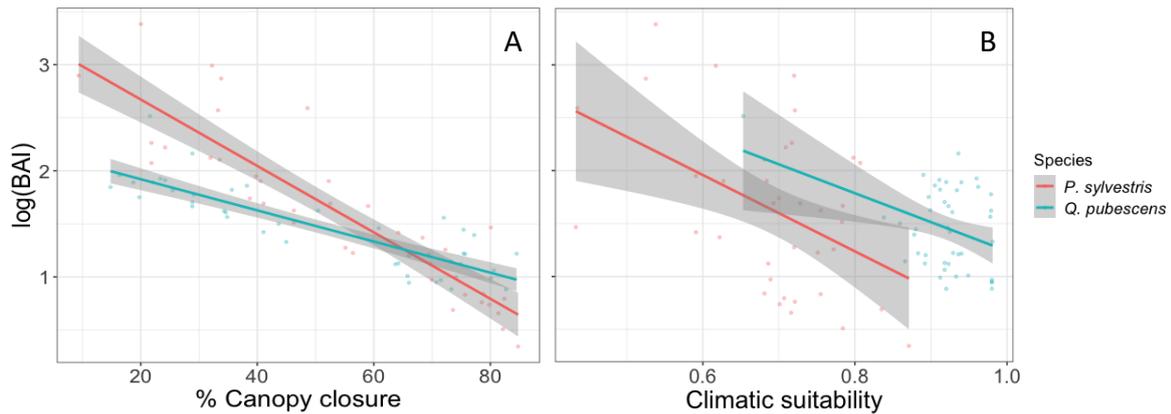
289

3.3. Effect of environmental variables on the growth of sub-canopy trees

First, the best fitted climatic suitability-based GLM for BAI included tree diameter, canopy closure, species climatic suitability and species identity as the main factors, and the bivariate interactions between canopy closure and species climatic suitability with species identity (Table 1). The relationship between BAI and canopy closure and climatic suitability differed between species (Table 1, Figure 4A, 4B). Consistent with the previous Two-Way ANOVA, this model showed that *P. sylvestris* BAI increased more steeply with canopy defoliation than *Q. pubescens* BAI (Figure 4A). Also, *P. sylvestris* trees exhibited a higher BAI with decreasing climatic suitability. In the case of *Q. pubescens* the decrease of BAI with increasing climatic suitability is less pronounced (Table 1, Figure 4B) in comparison to *P. sylvestris*. Finally, BAI, overall, had a positively significant relationship with tree diameter (Table 1).

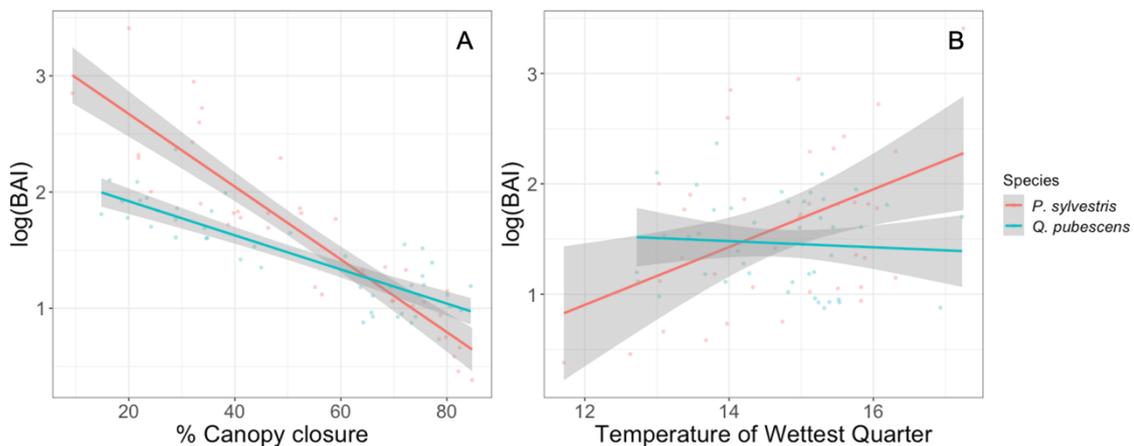
Table 2: Results of the best-fitted climatic variables-based GLM (second GLM) with BAI as response variable. The explanatory variables included in the model are: tree diameter, species identity (*Q. pubescens* or *P. sylvestris*), canopy closure and mean temperature in the wettest quarter. Both interactions between species identity and canopy closure and mean temperature in the wettest quarter were included. Variance explained as r^2 are included in the last row.

	Estimate	Standard error	p
Intercept	0.305629	1.392185	<0.00001
Diameter	0.060863	0.017457	0.000807
Species [Q. pubescens]	3.282667	2.043929	0.112303
Canopy closure	-0.03025	0.003863	<0.00001
Mean temp. of wettest quarter	0.110574	0.067343	0.104625
Species [Q. pubescens] * Canopy closure	0.016274	0.005033	0.001795
Species [Q. pubescens] * Mean TWQ	-0.217529	0.100216	0.033004
			$r^2 = 0.6385$



308

309 **Figure 4:** A: Relationship between predicted BAI and canopy closure (%) for *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens*. B:
 310 Relationship between predicted BAI and climatic suitability. Both relationships were obtained from the climatic
 311 suitability-based GLM (First GLM).



312

313 **Figure 5:** A: Relationship between predicted BAI and canopy closure (%) for *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens*. B:
 314 Relationship between predicted BAI and Temperature of the Wettest Quarter. Both relationships were obtained
 315 from the climatic variables-based GLM (second GLM).

316

317 Second, the best fitted GLM using the micro-local measures of bioclimatic variables (climatic
 318 variables-based GLM) included the same independent variables as the climatic suitability-
 319 based GLM, but considering the mean temperature of the wettest quarter (TWQ) instead of
 320 climatic suitability (Table 2). This model showed that BAI significantly increased with higher
 321 mean temperature of the wettest quarter (from April to June) in *P. sylvestris*, but this effect was
 322 not observed in *Q. pubescens* (Table 2, Figure 5B). This model showed the same effect of tree

323 diameter and canopy closure on the BAI of *Q. pubescens* and *P. sylvestris* than the climatic
324 suitability-based model (Table 2, Figure 5B).

325

326 **4. Discussion**

327 **4.1. *Pinus sylvestris* replacement**

328 Both *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pubescens* showed increased growth under canopies affected by
329 drought, but this increase was higher in *P. sylvestris*, supporting short-term self-replacement
330 and the maintenance of *P. sylvestris* in the forest canopy. Canopy opening due to pine mortality
331 or defoliation should favor the growth of species that require light, such as *Q. pubescens* and
332 *P. sylvestris* (Diaci, Adamič, Rozman, Fidej, & Roženberger, 2019; Pasta et al., 2016).
333 However, *Q. pubescens* is more shade-tolerant than *P. sylvestris* (Niinemets & Valladares,
334 2006). Accordingly, in our forest *Q. pubescens* exhibited greater growth than *P. sylvestris* in
335 sites with less canopy defoliation (more canopy closure). This agrees with previous
336 observations that point *Quercus pubescens* as species with high survival rate during several
337 years under denser canopies (Diaci et al., 2019). The gap that thus opens as a result of drought-
338 induced pine mortality would represent a small-scale disturbance, pushing back community
339 succession (Pulsford, Lindenmayer, & Driscoll, 2016) and favouring the pre-existing dominant
340 *P. sylvestris*. Nevertheless, *Q. pubescens* trees also increased their growth on affected sites,
341 indicating the potential of this species to achieve the forest canopy as a result of pine mortality,
342 especially on sites where *P. sylvestris* individuals are not found in the understorey. Overall,
343 these results are consistent with observations of both self-replacement and replacement of
344 dominant species by other species following tree mortality events established in the
345 understorey (Batllori et al., 2020, Lloret et al. 2021), and they illustrate the mechanisms
346 involved in forest dynamics shortly after episodes of drought-induced mortality.

347 The species canopy replacement in drought-induced gaps will eventually be produced by the
348 identity of trees established below or beside the affected canopy trees. This reinforces the idea
349 that short-term replacement is more closely related to the presence of small trees rather than
350 the abundance of seedlings on a given stand. In our studied forest, *P. sylvestris* seedlings and
351 saplings are much more scarce than those of *Q. pubescens*, which may suggest on the long term
352 an advantage of oaks over pines after the death of adult pines (Galiano et al., 2013). But
353 seedling survival and growth can be extremely volatile and environmental and biotic dependent
354 at small scales (Castro et al., 2004). Further, more developed juvenile stages of oaks in the
355 understorey are rarer than in the case of pines, supporting the notion that the eventual short-
356 term replacement of pines by oaks would be extremely local or patchy.

357

358 **4.2. Influence of micro-local post-drought climatic conditions on tree** 359 **growth**

360 The temperature of the wettest quarter had a significant positive effect on tree growth,
361 particularly in *P. sylvestris* individuals, suggesting that micro-local conditions modulate the
362 growth of the remaining trees and, eventually, self-replacement after a disturbance (Elvira et
363 al., 2021). Here, the wettest quarter of the year encompasses late spring (April to June, (Catalan
364 Meteorological Station Network, Meteocat)), which coincides with the first part of the tree's
365 growth season. Higher temperatures during the growing season can promote the growth of *P.*
366 *sylvestris*, especially when the summer water deficit is low (Peltola et al., 2002). Moreover,
367 other studies observed that when competition is low -like in drought-induced gaps- growth of
368 the surviving trees is enhanced with higher temperatures, but these higher temperatures have a
369 negative effect on growth in those plots with large basal area where competition is more intense
370 (Wright, Sherriff, Miller, & Wilson, 2018). In addition, radiation is greater in these drought-
371 induced gaps, thus creating drier and warmer conditions (Anderegg et al., 2012). An increase

372 of temperature in the wettest quarter in defoliated plots was also observed on our study site
373 (Figure 4B), and it could enhance the growth of *P. sylvestris* understorey trees, having less
374 influence on the growth of *Q. pubescens*.

375

376 **4.3. Climatic suitability indices derived from SDMs limitations**

377 Overall, the climatic suitability inferred from SDMs did not consistently explain individual
378 growth patterns. In fact, climatic suitability had a negative relationship with growth,
379 particularly in *P. sylvestris* individuals (Table 1), suggesting that pine self-replacement could
380 be faster in our study area in populations close to their tolerance limits. A poor relationship
381 between *P. sylvestris* performance and climatic suitability indices derived from SDMs was also
382 observed in resistance in French forests after the 2003 summer heatwave (Margalef-Marrase et
383 al., 2020). In our area, greater climatic suitability was found at higher elevations, in agreement
384 with the mountainous distribution of the Iberian *P. sylvestris* populations, which fed our SDM.
385 Greater growth was observed, however, at lower elevation under warmer conditions, as seen
386 by the positive relationship with the temperature of the wettest quarter (late spring). Overall,
387 while the observed greater Scot pine growth at lower elevations can be explained by local
388 milder climate, this local pattern would not be well captured by SDMs based on regional
389 patterns of distribution. In the case of *Q. pubescens*, the expected higher growth trends induced
390 by micro-local higher climatic suitability (Figure 4A, Table S2 of the supplementary material,
391 Terradas et al., 2009) were neither supported by our BAI observations.

392 Although climatic suitability indices extracted from SDMs could be a tool to predict future
393 vegetation shifts under climate-change scenarios (Kerns, Powell, Mellmann-Brown, Carnwath,
394 & Kim, 2018) and explain patterns of drought-induced die-off effects (Lloret & Kitzberger,
395 2018; Pérez Navarro et al., 2018) or vulnerability to infestation by pests (Jaime et al., 2019),
396 their relationships with vegetation dynamics (Thuiller et al., 2014) and growth trends (Dolos,

397 Bauer, & Albrecht, 2015) are more elusive when micro-local environmental data are involved.
398 Regional-scale models cannot capture relevant micro-local variability and, consequently, their
399 scaling-down is not accurate enough, even when translating climate variables measured in the
400 field. Moreover, the niche characterization across the different recruitment and replacement
401 stages – from seedlings to adults – can differ (Canham & Murphy, 2017), since the growth and
402 survival rates of the different life-history stages can be strongly dependent on biotic interactions
403 (Miriti, 2006) and vary in terms of nutritional requirements (Bertrand et al., 2011). As a result,
404 different life-history stages have a different relationship with climate, which is not fully
405 captured in indices derived from SDMs. In contrast, micro-local measured climatic variables
406 showed better performance and were more theoretically grounded when explaining individual
407 patterns of tree growth. To summarize, regional-based indices such as climatic suitability can
408 explain demographic processes, such as mortality and die-off effects, at equivalent spatial
409 scales. These indices are difficult to translate to a more local scale, as they do not consider
410 variables such as micro-climate, soil or biotic interactions, which operate at small spatial scale
411 (Bertrand, Perez, & Gégout, 2012; Piedallu, Gégout, Lebourgeois, & Seynave, 2016). SDMs-
412 based predictions of changes in both local growth and die-off trends can therefore be poor
413 accurate, due to site-specific dependence (van der Maaten et al., 2017).

414 **4.4. Future perspectives**

415 The future climatic scenario in the region points to a rise in temperature of 2.2 °C in 2050
416 compared to the period 1971-2000 (Calbó et al., 2016). Although precipitation is not expected
417 to drop dramatically, these increasing temperatures are expected to raise water deficit (Calbó
418 et al., 2016; Samaniego et al., 2018) and exacerbate the increase of extreme events such as
419 droughts (Dai, 2013; Hari, Rakovec, Markonis, Hanel, & Kumar, 2020) and heatwaves in the
420 coming decades (Viceto, Pereira, & Rocha, 2019). These extreme climatic episodes will
421 probably lead to greater canopy defoliation and tree mortality in these rear-edge populations of

422 *P. sylvestris*, especially in stands with higher density and more competition (Bottero et al.,
423 2017; Galiano et al., 2010). Herein, we report the ability of these populations to endure after
424 such events, provided trees growing in the sub-canopy are available. Our findings also highlight
425 the importance of stand structural features related to canopy closure in self-replacement. These
426 features are closely linked to competitive processes, which, together other biotic interactions,
427 make a significant contribution to the endurance of populations located close to its species'
428 tolerance limits (Ettinger & HilleRisLambers, 2013). Accordingly, forest management in these
429 populations should encourage the preservation of the tree understorey layer to ensure and
430 accelerate the replacement of trees affected by die-off and eventual mortality, and thus
431 guarantee trees' post-drought recovery (Aldea et al., 2017; Sohn, Saha, & Buhus, 2016; Vila-
432 Cabrera, Martinez-Vilalta, Vayreda, & Retana, 2011).

433

434 **5. Conclusions**

435 Short-term self-replacement patterns after drought-induced mortality in Pyrenean forests
436 dominated by *P. sylvestris* were enhanced by micro-local conditions generated by the die-off
437 itself, particularly temperature in the wettest quarter. Despite the low number of *P. sylvestris*
438 seedlings available in the forest – in contrast with the high number of *Q. pubescens* seedlings
439 and saplings (Galiano et al., 2010; Galiano et al., 2013)– a rapid replacement of dominant pines
440 by oaks will probably not occur in the short term. Canopy recovery and replacement may be
441 determined by trees growing in the understorey, where oaks are not so prevalent at the moment.
442 Small-scale dynamics differences proved important, since while *P. sylvestris* can grow better
443 than *Q. pubescens* in more opened gaps, *Q. pubescens* grows fast as pine under a healthy pine
444 canopy. This difference in the performance of these two coexisting species makes it difficult
445 to predict long-term future changes in rear-edge forests where species with different niches
446 concur. This study highlights the importance of monitoring the different life-history stages

447 (seedlings, saplings, understory trees, adults) to predict future shifts in the community under
448 climate-change scenarios. This study also provides evidence of mechanisms that promote the
449 resilience of *P. sylvestris* forests meanwhile the tolerance limits of the species are not exceeded
450 (García-Valdés, Estrada, Early, Lehsten, & Morin, 2020). But considering the climate-change
451 context in which droughts are expected to be increasingly frequent, these mechanisms might
452 finally collapse as well.

453

454 **Acknowledgements**

455 We thank the CHELSA climate database for making their data freely available online. This
456 study was funded by the Spanish Ministry of Education through doctoral grant no.
457 FPU15/04593, by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness through the projects
458 BIOCLIM (CGL2015-67419-R) and RESIBIO (PID2020-115264RB-I00), and by the
459 AGAUR 2017 SGR 1001 grant (Generalitat de Catalunya). The authors are very grateful to the
460 Alt Pirineu Natural Park and particularly to C. Fañanas and M. Garriga for supporting this
461 research in this protected area. We acknowledge M.A. Pérez Navarro, L. Jaime, O. Calvet, M.
462 Turon, C. Terraza, P. Oliveras and O. Margalef for their help in the field work.

463

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