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**CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization plays a minor role in long-term carbon accumulation patterns  
in temperate pine forests in the southwestern Pyrenees**

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## Abstract

Isolating the long-term fertilization effect of CO<sub>2</sub> from other climate- and site-related effects on tree growth has been proven a challenging task. To isolate long-term effects of [CO<sub>2</sub>] on water use efficiency at ecosystem level, we used the FORECAST Climate forest model, calibrated for Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) forests in the southwestern Pyrenees, growing at a Mediterranean montane site and at a continental subalpine site. Future climate scenarios (RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5) were generated using a battery of six climate models to estimate daily values of temperature and precipitation in a 90-year series. A factorial experiment was designed to disentangle the importance on C pools of three growing limiting factors (nitrogen limitation, climate (temperature + precipitation) limitation and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration). The relative importance of each factor was quantified by comparing the scenario with the limitation of each individual factor turned on with the non-limitation scenario. Positive CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization due to improvement in water use efficiency was detected by the model, but its quantitative impact improving tree growth was minimum: its average increase in ecosystem C pools ranged from 0.3 to 0.9%. At the site with cooler climate conditions (continental), the main limitation for tree growth was climate. Such limitation will be reduced under climate change and the ecosystem will store more carbon. At the site with milder climate conditions (Mediterranean), N availability was the main limiting factor albeit modulated by water availability. Such limitation could be reduced under climate change as N cycling could accelerate (higher litterfall production and decomposition rates) but also increase if droughts become more frequent and severe. In addition, the magnitude of the uncertainty related to climate model selection was much more important than CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization, indicating that atmospheric processes are more important than tree physiological processes when defining how much carbon could be gained (or lost) in forests under climate change. In conclusion, due to the small changes in forest C pools caused by variation of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations compared to changes caused by other growth limiting factors (nutrients, climate), reducing uncertainty related to climate projections seems a more efficient way to reduce uncertainty in tree growth projections than increasing forest model complexity.

## 1. Introduction

Under global climate change, European forestry is facing new challenges related to environmental, climatic, and socio-economic changes. Assessing climate-management–growth relationships is of high importance in order to understand how European forests might respond to these changes. Since the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the atmosphere has increased dramatically (IPCC, 2013). In addition, industrial activities have also changed other atmospheric components, such as nitrogen oxides, sulphur, ozone and other trace elements. Such changes have already altered European trees growth rates (Pretzsch et al., 2014).

Despite the general concerns on how potential future temperature and precipitation changes may affect forest ecosystems, one major debate is how elevated CO<sub>2</sub> could affect forest productivity and global carbon cycles (Gedalof and Berg, 2010; Marshall and Linder, 2013). The general belief is that increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations will increase tree growth by making photosynthesis more efficient and reducing the time that stomata have to stay open, therefore reducing water losses by transpiration (Katul et al., 2010). Several effects of increasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations have been documented, such as direct leaf biochemical effects, soil moisture savings due to stomatal closure and changes in leaf area index (Fatichi et al., 2016). Direct leaf biochemical effects have been researched in depth, but indirect effects are hard to isolate (Ainsworth and Long, 2004; Norby and Zak, 2011). The combined direct and indirect effects have been labelled as CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization (Holden et al., 2013), a definition that we used for the rest of this paper. Such fertilization effect could increase forests' role as carbon sinks in the global carbon budget (Gedalof and Berg, 2010; McMahon et al., 2010). However, inconsistent results have been reported on the size or even the existence of such effect, depending on which scale (i.e. global, continental, landscape, ecosystem, or stand), tools or objects (e.g. model, remote sensing, forest inventory, tree rings) were used for detecting the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect. So far, none of them has reached a consistent conclusion (Baig et al., 2015).

At the small scale, field experiments have shown that CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization increases plant growth in some ecosystems (Cole et al., 2010), but the effect may be modulated by nutrient limitation (Fleischmann et al., 2010; Jonard et al., 2015; Norby et al., 2010). At larger scales, model simulations have also showed the potential for higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentration to increase forest productivity (Bugmann and Bigler, 2011; Piao et al., 2009). However, other evidence has indicated that tree growth increases by climate change are not related to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization, but to temperature increase, stronger drought resistance, or nutrient fertilization (Bertini et al., 2011; Ise and Moorcroft, 2010; Magalhães et al., 2014; Poulter et al., 2013; Salzer et al., 2009). Moreover, some experiments on growth under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration have shown no effect (Bader et al., 2013; Booth, 2013), or even growth decrease (Esmail and Oelbermann, 2011). In fact, it has been argued that the generalized belief on CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effects could even be due to sampling bias (Brienen et al., 2012).

Given the lack of long-term field studies in southwestern European forests and the uncertainty in changing climatic conditions, forest growth models provide one of the best available methods to examine long-term patterns of forest growth and development, and their potential behavior under alternative climate change scenarios. Hybrid models combining ecological processes and empirical data can be effective tools for projecting development under untested growing conditions, novel silvicultural regimes, and alternative species combinations and proportions (Blanco et al., 2015). However, large uncertainties still exist in the projected climate change when downscaled for different regions. Therefore, to estimate such uncertainty when modelling long-term growth patterns in forest ecosystems, ensembles of climate change predictions have recently been used successfully (AlRahahleh et al., 2018; González de Andrés et al., 2017). These studies have shown how the uncertainty related to climate model selection can account up to a 25% of variability in tree growth estimation in 100-year-long projections.

All things considered, the intensity of effects related to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization would be affected by site and stand conditions, and would be accumulative over time as trees grow. These features point out to the need for research tools able to identify the relative importance of different limiting factors

on tree growth but also to take into account their interactions, and how they are affected by new climate conditions. Such tools are ecosystem-level forest models that have a good representation of the most important ecological processes (Bravo-Oviedo et al., 2011; Pretzsch, 2009). Predicting changes in soil nutrients, moisture, carbon cycles, trees and vegetation from other vegetation strata at scales meaningful for forest management involves greater complexity than is included in most operational stand-level empirical models (Kimmins et al., 2008; Lo et al., 2010), the ones usually used by the forestry industry and administrations. As a consequence, current forest planning tools generally fail to account for direct and indirect consequences of climate change (Medlyn et al., 2011), yet these could have very significant effects on tree species distributions, productivity and forest structure in southwestern Europe, as well as worldwide (Lindner et al., 2010; Reyer et al., 2010).

Based on current literature, we hypothesize that current seemingly conflicting evidence of the effect of rising CO<sub>2</sub> concentration can be harmonized when the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect is isolated, its interactions with other plant growth limiting factors (nutrients, temperature, light, moisture) are accounted for, and its influence on the C pools at ecosystem level (vegetation + soil) are taken into account (i.e. adequate model complexity, Kimmins et al., 2008). However, we also hypothesize that uncertainty related to climate model selection may be of the same magnitude than the uncertainty related to model complexity. To test these hypotheses, our research has the following specific objectives: (a) isolating the potential effect of increasing CO<sub>2</sub> levels on tree growth in Scots pine stands in the Pyrenean region; (b) testing how nutrient and water availability may modulate such potential CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect; (c) estimating the uncertainty in C sequestered in different ecosystem pools due to climate model selection.

To reach these objectives, we used an ecosystem-level model as a virtual lab to separate the effects of nutrient, water, temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> limitation by simulating different scenarios with each limiting factor sequentially switched off, to rank their importance on ecosystem processes, with a focus on tree growth. To do so, we have employed the process-based, ecosystem-level model FORECAST Climate (Seely et al., 2015) to simulate the development of forest ecosystems under a

reference climate and different climate change scenarios derived from six global circulation models (GCMs) and two representative concentration pathways (RCPs). The model simulates CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization through its effects on water use efficiency, as this effect is well established whereas other direct and indirect effects are still being debated (Seely et al. 2015, and explanation below). FORECAST Climate is able to simulate the flow of water and energy through various forest layers including explicit representations of the balance between inputs from precipitation and seepage, and outputs by canopy interception, evapotranspiration, plant uptake, percolation and runoff. The model has been successfully tested and applied for a wide variety of forest ecosystems (Blanco et al., 2015; Dordel et al., 2011; Lo et al., 2015; Seely et al., 2015, Kang et al. 2017 and references therein).

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### **2.1 The FORECAST Climate Model**

FORECAST Climate (Seely et al., 2015) is an ecological model that simulates forests at stand level. FORECAST Climate builds up from its model antecessor FORECAST (Kimmins et al., 1999) by including a water-energy module (formerly the stand-alone model ForWaDy, Seely et al., 1997). FORECAST Climate is a management-oriented, forest growth and ecosystem dynamics simulator that operates at stand level and annual time steps. It keeps track of nutrient and water cycles in the forests, taking into account how light availability affects matter circulation. The model simulates forest growth using a hybrid approach, as it merges the use of empirical data (i.e. growth and yield tables and field data) modified by the simulation of the most important ecological processes (Mäkelä et al., 2000). A detailed discussion of this approach and the full model have been described before (Kimmins et al., 1999, 2010) and a summary is available in the Supplementary Information.

In FORECAST Climate, tree growth is limited by available light and nutrients (Figure S1 in the Supplementary Information) and the model uses a mass balance approach to simulate nutrient cycling. Rates of key ecosystem processes are calculated at an annual time step from a combination

of historical bioassay data (biomass accumulation in component pools, stand density, etc.) and measures of certain ecosystem variables (e.g., decomposition rates, photosynthetic saturation curves) by relating “biologically active” biomass components (foliage and small roots) with calculations of nutrient uptake, the capture of light energy, and net primary production. In this way the model generates a set of growth properties for each tree and plant species which includes, among others, 1) photosynthetic efficiency per unit of foliage biomass based on relationships between foliage biomass, simulated self-shading, and net primary productivity after accounting for litterfall and mortality, 2) nutrient uptake requirements based on rates of biomass accumulation and nutrient concentrations in different biomass components on different site qualities, and 3) light-related measures of tree and branch mortality derived from stand density input data in combination with simulated canopy light profiles.

As a non-spatial model, FORECAST Climate simulates plant biomass as homogeneously distributed in the stand, piled in different canopy layers determined by top and bottom height of each plant species present. Light availability is estimated for each biomass layer (each of them with 25 cm height) as solar radiation is absorbed by plant biomass. Light-induced mortality occurs in those canopy layers for which input radiation is lower than required to maintain photosynthesis (a user-defined parameter; Kimmins, 1993).

Annual vegetation growth is estimated by comparing nutrient demands (as defined by potential growth based on previous-year biomass) and light availability (calculated by radiation diffusion through the canopy structure) with actual nutrient availability (nutrients present in the soil every time step). Nutrient limitation appears when nutrient demands are higher than nutrient availability. Then, available nutrients are divided among the different plant species depending on their demand and root occupancy (Kimmins et al., 1999). Actual biomass growth is then calculated, and carbon allocation for next year is distributed depending on site quality. The model simulates the dynamics of all major forest carbon stocks (aboveground biomass, belowground biomass, litter, dead wood and soil organic carbon). It complies with the carbon estimation methods outlined by the IPCC (Penman et al., 2003). See Kimmins et al. (1999) for further details.

In addition to light limitation and nutrient cycling, the FORECAST Climate model also contains a two-dimensional forest hydrology sub-model that simulates forest hydrology main dynamics on a daily time step under a given set of climatic and vegetation conditions. It takes into account species-specific estimates of leaf area index, canopy radiation interception, and soil occupation by fine root biomass to calculate water and energy transfers along the canopy and soil profiles. The model also provides information regarding the formation of soil organic matter and its distribution within specific soil layers.

FORECAST Climate calculates potential evapotranspiration (PET) using an empirically-based energy budget approach, estimating net shortwave solar radiation interception based on leaf area index and weather variables (see Table S2 for a full list of variables). PET is estimated separately for the canopy, understory, and forest floor. To simulate hydrological dynamics in the forest floor and rooting zone, the soil is simulated as composed by different layers (Figure S2 in Supporting Information). Each layer's physical properties (infiltration rate, moisture content, moisture holding capacity, permanent wilting point) define water storage and vertical movement through soil. For each day and each plant species, water stress is calculated as the relative difference between potential energy-limited transpiration demand and actual transpiration. Daily indices for water availability and competition for water resources are computed and then converted into annual estimations to modify annual vegetation and organic matter decomposition rates (Seely et al., 2015, Supporting Information).

Simulation of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization is restricted to improvements on water use efficiency. As higher atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are associated with lower stomatal water vapour conductance, and greater water use efficiency, such processes are represented in FORECAST Climate using a function that modifies canopy resistance in each plant species in relation to atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. The reason for this approach is that, although increases in photosynthetic efficiency due to increased CO<sub>2</sub> have been reported and are expected as carboxylation in C3 plants is not saturated, respiration rates increase with raising temperatures (concomitant to increased CO<sub>2</sub>) at higher rates than carboxylation (Collalti et al., 2018). In fact, photosynthetic rates can also be reduced by higher



temperatures (Way and Oren, 2010). Respiration also increases with tree age as standing tissue increases, and as a consequence leaf biomass is more important for NPP than C assimilation (Dong et al., 2019). In addition, acclimation to higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in plants has been reported (Ainsworth and Long, 2004), causing that increased photosynthetic rates last for only a few years, particularly in N-limited plants. On the other hand, similar responses to increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in C3 and C4 plants (which are almost carbon-saturated at present-day CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) indicate that increased productivity is mostly caused via increased water use efficiency (Degener, 2015). Therefore, increased photosynthetic rates do not necessarily translate into increased biomass (Korner, 2003; Fatichi et al., 2016). Negligible effects of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization in water-limited ecosystems have also been reported (Dong et al., 2019). Finally, recent research has pointed that increased productivity by higher photosynthetic rates can translate into faster tree growth but also shorter tree longevity, causing a neutral or even negative overall effect on forest stand biomass at the long term (Bugmann and Bigler, 2011; Chaste et al., 2019). All these facts indicate that CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization at stand level and long time scales is likely a water more than a carbon issue (Holtum and Winter, 2010), supporting our simulation approach.

FORECAST Climate has a modular architecture, allowing switching on or off the two modules simulating nutrient limitation and water/energy limitation, whereas the light limitation is the engine of the model and therefore must always be turned on. A detailed description of all physiological processes and the approaches followed to simulated them can be found in Kimmins (1993), Seely et al. (1997), Kimmins et al. (1999) and Seely et al. (2015). The original FORECAST model has been extensively used in different forest types around the world (see Kimmins et al., 2010). The water-energy module has been validated against field-measured soil moisture data (Dordel et al., 2011; Seely et al., 2015; Titus et al., 2006). Particularly, the model has been evaluated for Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) forests in the southwestern Pyrenees, providing acceptable performance for a battery of ecological variables (Blanco et al., 2006, 2017; Candel-Perez et al., 2017; Gárate and Blanco, 2013; González de Andrés et al., 2017; Lo et al., 2015a)

## **2.2 Model calibration and study sites.**

Most of the values used to calibrate the FORECAST Climate model for Scot pine forests came from long-term research plots monitored since 1999 by the Ecology and Environment Group of the Public University of Navarra (Pamplona, Spain). Research plots are located in the higher Ebro Basin, in northern Spain, in the southwestern Pyrenees. Eighteen research plots are placed at two different sites with distinct geo-climatic features, providing data to calibrate the model for two distinct sites, typical of the southwestern Pyrenees. The first site (near the village of Aspurz) has cool Mediterranean climate (Papadakis 1970), 680 m altitude, 10% average slope, average annual temperature ( $T_m$ ) of 12.0 °C and annual precipitation (Pa) of 900 mm. The second site (near the village of Garde) has a cool continental climate (Papadakis 1970) at 1380 m altitude, 45% slope,  $T_m$  8.2°C and Pa 1300 mm (Figure 1). At both sites Scots pine is the dominant species, with a presence of beech trees in the lower canopy and understory layers. A detailed description of the research sites can be found in the Supporting Information (Table S1). From these long-term research sites, calibration data to parameterize the FORECAST Climate model were obtained through different field research, with bibliographical sources used to calibrate parameters not measured directly. A detailed list of the calibration sources can be found in the Supporting Information (Tables S2, S3 and S4).

## **2.3. Disentangling CO<sub>2</sub> effects on C pools with scenario simulation**

A battery of simulations was designed to isolate the individual influence of three limiting factors on tree growth: nutrient availability (for simplicity represented by N available in soil, see Lo et al., [2015a], and section 4.3 for reasons supporting this assumption and its consequences), climate (water availability and temperature) and carbon (atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration). The simulations were designed to switch off alternatively each of the limiting factors, and then running the simulations with all of them on or off simultaneously. When the nutrient and climate model were switched off, FORECAST Climate worked as a light-only model. To isolate the influence of CO<sub>2</sub>, two different types of climate scenarios were created: one with the projected increasing atmospheric

CO<sub>2</sub>, and another one with the same precipitation, radiation and temperature values but with CO<sub>2</sub> set constant at 400 ppm. This approach allowed isolating and ranking the influence of each limiting factor. To account for climate influence, the simulations were repeated for no change (baseline), moderate (RCP 4.5) and severe (RCP 8.5) climate change. Climate simulations accounted for variations in precipitation and temperature, but not in other weather variables such as relative humidity, solar radiation or wind as there are not predictions available for the region. To account for site influence, simulations were repeated for both Mediterranean and continental research forests. Baseline climate data were obtained from nearby weather stations for the period 1975-2004 (Figure 1). Climate change scenarios were generated for the period 2015-2104 by downscaling future regional predictions that modified historical records. To account for uncertainty in climate predictions related to climate model selection, the simulations were repeated using climate estimates from six different major climate models (Table S5). The procedure is detailed in the Supporting Information.

Target variables used to compare the importance of each growth-limiting factor were: 1) total ecosystem carbon (defined as the sum of total carbon in trees, understory vegetation, litter, humus and coarse woody debris [CWD]); 2) aboveground carbon (carbon contained in aboveground parts of trees and understory vegetation); 3) litter + CWD carbon (defined as carbon in snags, logs and decomposing organic matter); and 4) belowground carbon (defined as the sum of carbon in humus plus vegetation roots). The light-only scenario was used as the baseline for carbon accumulation. Average reductions in carbon pools due to each growth-limiting factor for the whole simulated period were calculated as weighted averages, calculating first differences between simulations for each year and then calculating the weighted average of those annual differences using the value of each C pool of the light-only scenario for each year as weight.

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Estimated importance of different growth limiting factors on accumulated ecosystem C

At the Mediterranean site, when only nutrient limitation was added, accumulated C decreased in the whole ecosystem, litter + CWD, and aboveground pools, but increased in the belowground pool (Figure 2). Nutrient limitation was still the most influencing factor on reducing accumulated C in all the pools (Figure 2). The more extreme the climate scenario, the more important the individual effects of climate and CO<sub>2</sub> became, but N still was the most influencing factor in all situations (a reduction between 12 to 17% in C pools compared to the light-only scenario), except for belowground C, for which climate was the most limiting factor. When the three limiting factors were simulated together, ecosystem C and litter + CWD C pools showed the highest C reduction for both climate scenarios, and belowground C under RCP 8.5. However, aboveground C for both climate scenarios and belowground C for RCP 4.5 showed reductions of C pools smaller when simulating the three limiting factors than when simulating individual factors, indicating the capacity among factors to counteract some negative effects (Table 1).

However, at the continental site, nitrogen was less limiting than at the Mediterranean site for ecosystem, litter + CWD, and aboveground pools. However, nitrogen was more limiting than at the Mediterranean site for belowground C (Figure 3). For all the C pools considered, climate was the most limiting factor. In spite of it, for the belowground C pool, N limitation under climate change was reduced and caused an increase of the pool size. CO<sub>2</sub> had some positive effect on increasing accumulated C, but the effect was very small. However, unlike at the Mediterranean site, climate limitation had similar importance irrespective of which climate scenario was simulated.

Table 1 presents differences in size effects (as percentages) among different limiting factors, summarized for the whole simulated period. At the ecosystem level, under mild climate change at the Mediterranean and continental sites, ecosystem C was reduced 14.8% and 10.7% respectively, when the model was running at maximum complexity (i.e. N limitation, climatic limitation due to precipitation and temperature, and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization simulated together). For the moderate climate scenario (RCP 4.5), at Mediterranean site nutrient limitation was the most important factor and it

accounted for 12.2% reduction, climate limitation accounted for 8.2% reduction and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization accounted for a mere 0.7% increase in ecosystem C. On the other hand, at the continental site, climate limitation was the most important factor, reducing ecosystem C by 14.5%, whereas N limitation reduced ecosystem C by 2.2% and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization increased it by 0.3%.

We subsequently ran the model with a more extreme climate change scenario (RCP 8.5), and the results showed less ecosystem C reduction (12.3% and 7.4% for Mediterranean and continental sites, respectively), indicating a counterbalancing effect among factors. At the Mediterranean site, nutrient limitation still accounted for the largest ecosystem C loss (12.7%) while climate limitation account for less ecosystem C loss (8.0%) and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization increased ecosystem C by 1.2%. At the continental site, climate limitation was still the most important factor, but the effect was reduced to 12.1% loss. Nutrient limitation reduced ecosystem C about the same (2.3%) and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization increased ecosystem C by 0.6%.

Looking deeper at different carbon pools at the Mediterranean site (i.e. litter and CWD, aboveground and belowground), no matter which climate scenario was used, litter and CWD lost the most C (20.0% and 19.7% for RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios, respectively). At the continental site, with a mild climate change scenario, the aboveground pool lost the most carbon (13.3%) while under a more extreme climate scenario it was the belowground pool the one losing the most carbon (10.5%). Looking at each limiting factor separately, at the Mediterranean site, N limitation played a role stronger than the other factors (climate and CO<sub>2</sub>) for the litter + CWD, and aboveground C pools, while for the belowground C pool, climate played the most important role. In all the cases, CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization played a minor role in increasing accumulated C. At the continental site, climate played the most important role in all carbon pools and CO<sub>2</sub> still played a minor role in increasing C pools.

An important point to highlight is the differential importance of model complexity (number of limiting factors simulated simultaneously) depending on site conditions. At the Mediterranean site, adding extra factors always resulted in larger divergence from the light-only limitation, and more so under the severe climate change scenario (Figure 2). However, at the continental site, the use of the

whole model (light, nutrients, and climate including CO<sub>2</sub>) estimated that trees would grow more than with light-only limitation in the severe climate change scenario, but not in the RCP 4.5 scenario (Figure 3).

### **3.2. Effects of uncertainty related to climate model selection**

Uncertainties in predicting C pools patterns due to climate model selection are shown in Figures 4 and 5, which depict the upper and lower limits of the 95% confidence intervals of the average predictions (showed in Figure 2 and 3) for the complexity scenarios that included climate as a factor. For all C pools, the selection of climate models caused a variability in model predictions larger at the Mediterranean than at the continental site. At the Mediterranean site, belowground C had the smallest variation, whereas C in litter and CWD showed the largest uncertainty. At the continental site, the largest uncertainty was found for the aboveground C, whereas the smallest was estimated for litter and CWD carbon. Comparing different climate change scenarios, the variability caused by climate model selection was larger when simulating the RCP 8.5 than the RCP 4.5 at both forest types. In addition, forest model complexity interacted with uncertainty related to climate model selection, which was reduced when the full forest model (light, N, and climate with CO<sub>2</sub>) was applied.

## **4. Discussion**

### **4.1. Effects of different growth limiting factors on C pools**

We quantitatively estimated the possible importance of different growth limiting factors on accumulated C in different pools in two contrasting SW European Scots pine forests. Trees growing at the Mediterranean site mainly suffer from N competition, while at the continental site the most growth-limiting factor is climate. Although such results may seem counterintuitive at first sight, in fact, they point out to each local Scots pine population having adjusted their maximum potential growth (the light-only scenario) to the most important growth conditioning factor (drought at the Mediterranean site, N at the continental site, Blanco, 2004; Blanco et al., 2011; Cardil et al., 2018;

Primicia et al., 2013). This fact indicates that trees have adapted and acclimated to unfavorable growing condition (Camarero et al., 2015; Moreno et al., 2018). Therefore, additional limitation in those factors is not as impacting on actual growth as shortages in other environmental factors. From our simulations, it can be seen that when only N limitation is added into the model, the ecosystem C pool is reduced (particularly at the Mediterranean site) as the forest has not enough N to support all its potential growth. This result agrees with the progressive N limitation hypothesis proposed by Luo et al. (2004) and also with Liebig's law of minimum. However, N limitation is likely causing the underground root system to explore more soil, therefore, increasing belowground C. At the continental site, where trees already have slower growth rates, the additional loss of potential accumulated C not achieved by N limitation is not as important as at the Mediterranean site, except for the belowground C pool. This is likely caused by a more intense nutrient limitation as the soil at this site is poorer in N (Table S1; Blanco et al., 2015, 2011). In addition, at this site N limitation causes an increase in litter and CWD carbon, caused by increased mortality due to competition for N in the less fertile soil.

After adding climate limitation (simulated as temperature and water controls on tree growth and litter decomposition, Seely et al., 2015), and simulating different climate change scenarios (which will cause climate to become warmer and drier at these two sites) we estimated that the effects of different limiting factors affected both ecosystems in different ways. At the Mediterranean site, adding climate and nutrient limitation together caused bigger differences between the realized accumulated C and the potential accumulated C than those estimated by the light-only limitation simulation. A point to keep in mind is that N competition could be linked to water scarcity during part of the growing season. A feature that defines many temperate forests, and particularly those in the Mediterranean climate, is the existence of seasonal droughts (Perry et al., 2008). From our research at the experimental sites, we know that at the Mediterranean site the rate of nutrient cycling is limited by low temperatures early in the growing season, when there is abundant water, but becomes limited by low water later in the growing season (Blanco et al., 2011; Primicia et al., 2013).

Therefore, even though there is some evidence that CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment can cause growth increase (see references and results above), it appears that such increase would be irrelevant compared to the extra losses due to more frequent and severe drought events (Lim et al., 2015; Thornton et al., 2007). However, although we could expect that RCP 8.5 will reduce even more total accumulated C than RCP 4.5, our results indicate the opposite. Such counter-intuitive result could arise because trees do not respond to environmental change in a linear relationship, as competition modulates their responses (Fernández-de-Uña et al., 2015). Hence, it is important to distinguish the differential effects of climate change on aboveground C (mostly in trees) and on dead organic matter C (litter + CWD). Increased mortality due to drought would likely reduce standing C reserves, but on the other hand, it will increase litter and woody debris fall. As these materials (particularly CWD) have relatively low decomposition rates and climate change could reduce them even more by decreasing soil moisture (Almagro et al., 2015; Blanco et al., 2011; Saura-Mas et al., 2012), at an ecosystem scale C reserves could even increase, by transferring a portion from standing to fallen C material (Suzuki et al., 2019). Nonetheless, if longer time scales are simulated, it is likely that the C transferred from the canopy to the soil will also be lost over time. However, uncertainty related to climate predictions would also increase if longer time scales are used.

As Scots pine is the most widely distributed pine species globally, our results can have implications for other regions as well. Although Scots pine is tolerant to poor soils, frost and drought, it could also take advantage of improved growth conditions in future climates, particularly in northern sites where temperature could rise, accelerating nutrient cycling, but without an important increase in drought stress (Matala et al. 2005, 2006). However, in Central and Mediterranean Europe, our results agree with previous modelling exercises showing drought as an important limiting factor in nutrient-poor low-elevation sites (Wellpot et al., 2005; Ameztegui et al. 2017). At these drought-prone sites, CO<sub>2</sub> would play a minor role by producing a slight alleviation of water stress (Gärdenäs and Jansson, 1995). All these modelling results combined support Körner's (2003) position that environmental conditions restraining tissue formation are the actual limitation for tree growth, whereas C assimilation is close to saturated in most forests around the world, except likely



xeric forests during dry seasons.

#### **4.2 Is there a relevant CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect?**

The CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect can be separated into a direct effect by increasing the speed of photosynthesis rate (Norby et al., 1999) and an indirect effect on stomata conductance and then affecting water use efficiency (Farquhar et al., 1989). Several experiments had shown that CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization increased the photosynthesis rate but later on, such rate either stabilized or decreased due to shortages of other growth factors (e.g. nutrient or moisture) (Norby et al., 2010; Peñuelas et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2018). Other field experiment have also shown that CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization changed water use efficiency and therefore increased (under moderate water stress) or decreased (under severe water stress) tree growth performances (Drake et al., 2017; Rezaie et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2010). In addition, observed increases in plant biomass under elevated CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations have shown that such increases are mostly due to reduced water limitation (Degener, 2015; Holtum and Winter, 2010) or could translate into shorter tree life spans, and therefore cancelling out fertilization effects at stand level (Bugmann and Bigler, 2011; Chaste et al., 2019). In our model, we did not simulate the change of photosynthesis rate but rather the change of water use efficiency, but we still found a net CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization influence, benefiting both Mediterranean and continental ecosystems. However, such influence was small (0.7% average increase in ecosystem C). Such increase was easily overridden by other limiting factors causing reductions of accumulated C. Similar findings have been published worldwide (Brito et al., 2016; Dong et al., 2019; Exbrayat et al., 2018; Peñuelas et al., 2017). Therefore, when talking about the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect, its importance depends on the spatial and temporal scale, and it also depends on the age and physiological character of the species and the site conditions (Yang et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016). In any case, the real question is to which point such physiological effect actually has the potential to modify ecosystem C pools in a relevant way. According to our results, in southwestern European conifer forests such potential is quite small.

Classical reviews on the potential yield increase in crops have indicated that production could

increase up to 32% due to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization (Degener, 2015; Hartwell Allen et al., 1996). However, such impressive growth increase in agricultural crops is achieved under intensive fertilization and irrigation regimes. Net increase in tree growth due to CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization will be unlikely, as the main growth limiting factor in a warmer world would be water availability, and specifically in the Mediterranean area, where droughts are increasingly more frequent and severe. In addition, the continued N deposition levels, at least in European (Pretzsch et al., 2018) and Asian (Wei et al., 2012) forests, will even exacerbate the limiting nature of water (Dziedek et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2016). Such increased but unbalanced growth will have direct translation into reduced tree longevity (Bugmann and Bigler, 2011) and increased tree mortality (Allen et al., 2010; Klein and Hartmann, 2018; Pretzsch et al., 2014b).

The most noticeable relative change in C stocks at the Mediterranean forests would be the increase of C stored in litter and CWD. Such increase is directly related to increased mortality and litterfall rates caused by droughts. Our estimations of increased mortality agree with other modelling exercises for Mediterranean conifers (Davi and Cailleret, 2017). Indeed, such effect has already been detected at the experimental sites (Blanco et al., 2011; Primicia et al., 2016). Changes in other ecosystem C pools were small, in particular for underground C, agreeing with previous reports from empirical studies (Agathokleous et al., 2016; Lotfiomran et al., 2016), which did not detect significant increase in root biomass in trees under enriched CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. For understory, C pools (data not shown, but are included in the aboveground and belowground pool), we did not find significant changes, agreeing with empirical data from free-air-CO<sub>2</sub>-enrichment (FACE) experiments (Kim et al., 2016).

If effective mitigation plans to increase atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> fixation need to be set in the near future to reduce climate change effects, it is important to know how different growth limiting factors affect growth performance and more specifically, C fixation. The complex interaction between CO<sub>2</sub>, climate change, and C pools indicates the need to focus not only on trees, but also specially on deadwood and soils as the main reservoir to store C in forests (Blanco, 2018; Virto and Blanco, 2018). Even though our quantitative estimation should be taken with caution, we can

conclude that under the current climate change rate, the ecosystem C gained from CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization or warmer temperatures (longer growing season) do not override C losses due to drought stress or insufficient nutrient supply. This statement agrees with previous results from FACE experiments (Holtum and Winter, 2010). However, small CO<sub>2</sub> effects that may not be relevant for tree productivity at local scale could still be significant at regional scales by making current sites still suitable for tree species under climate change (Keenan et al., 2011).

In any case, future forest management could take advantage of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization if the other two most important limiting factors (nutrient limitation and water limitation) are somehow alleviated. As due to economy neither irrigation nor fertilization are practical in most European forests, and particularly in mountainous areas, alternative practices could be mixing pines with other species, such as European beech (*Fagus sylvatica* L.) to accelerate N cycling as broadleaves have higher leaf contents and faster decomposition rates. Such nutrient accelerating effect in mixed forests has already been reported at these same sites (González de Andrés et al., 2019). Similarly, mixing pine with beech could also reduce water stress in pine by reducing intra-specific competition for water (González de Andrés et al., 2017, 2018). Another alternative could be thinning pines to increase water availability (Ameztegui et al., 2017), although thinning effects are complex and not intuitive in mixedwoods as water interception and nutrient flows are also modified (Cardil et al., 2018).

#### **4.3 Uncertainty and modelling limitations**

There are two main uncertainty sources in the simulations presented here: 1) forest model complexity (the different limiting factors simulated simultaneously), 2) climate model selection, used to estimate future climate variables. As our results show, forest model complexity has an important influence on estimated C pools. Although *a priori* it seems that the more complex the model is, the more realistic its simulations would be, it is worth noticing that increasing model complexity also increases uncertainty derived from calibrating more parameters and also the uncertainty related to model structure (Saltelli et al., 2007). Therefore, a model should be as

complex as necessary to answer the question posed by the model user, but not more complex (Kimmins et al., 2008). In our case, turning on the modules that allowed the simulation of climate and nutrients was the only way to explore the consequences of the interactions among those factors on C pools.

On the other hand, the uncertainty related to climate model selection is in fact external to the exercise of modelling tree growth, as FORECAST Climate uses the outputs from the climate models as inputs to estimate water and energy flows. In that sense, giving the important uncertainty detected in our simulations for some variables, the choice of climate model seems more important than the inclusion of the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect. In addition to uncertainty in climate model selection (Prudhomme and Davies, 2009), there is also uncertainty in the method used to downscale climate projections to local landscape scale (Etemadi et al., 2014), the one meaningful for stand-level forest models. In fact, Prudhomme and Davies (2009) suggested ignoring sources of uncertainty that are of smaller scale than uncertainty due to climate model selection, and pointed out the need for climate modelling uncertainty should be accounted to provide sound, scientifically based advice for decision makers. A recommended way to incorporate uncertainty due to model selection is the use of model ensembles (Suzuki-Parker et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2014), and as the case presented here. On the other hand, a more general implication of our results is that the most efficient way to improve predictions of forests C pool patterns is by reducing uncertainty in climate models (Teng et al., 2012), rather than by expanding complexity in forest models. However, it is also worth pointing out that global simulation uncertainty was also reduced when using the full forest model (including simultaneously light, nutrients, climate with CO<sub>2</sub>), which indicates FORECAST Climate's capacity to counterbalance uncertainty related to climate to some extent by simulating more accurately the relationships between climate and the rest of growth-related variables, as has also been reported before for previous model versions (Blanco et al., 2007).

As in all modelling exercises, there were some limitations when using the FORECAST Climate model. For example, the representation of underground mycorrhizal system or the simulation of hydraulic redistribution among soil layers is not included in the model. Both of these

could be important factors regulating ecosystem function in some forest ecosystems (Neumann and Cardon, 2012; Simard et al., 2012). Indeed, mycorrhizal hyphae can have surface area that is at least comparable than leaf area (Perry et al., 2008), and therefore C pools. These facts imply that changes in belowground C pools (particularly roots) would affect changes in mycorrhizae and *vice versa*. In addition, drought-related mortality is empirically estimated, which combined with the lack of spatial representation of trees may cause that the model could not represent adequately neighboring effects important in Iberian forests (González de Andrés et al., 2018; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2013) and therefore changes in deadwood C pools.

Finally, our objective was to create a ranking of importance among the three most important tree growth-limiting factors, but in natural forests, such factors cannot be separated. Undeniably, water and nutrient flows are linked through the root absorption rates and soil solution (Gessler et al., 2017). Moreover, in our studies, we have limited simulating nutrient limitation to the effect of N. This was based on previous empirical studies at these two sites indicating that N is a limiting nutrient here (Blanco et al., 2009; Primicia et al., 2014), but also P, with a relatively more important role in the Mediterranean site. In fact, our most recent research is indicating that phosphorous could also be limiting (González de Andrés et al., 2019), supporting previous estimations that these forest may be reaching a N-saturated status (Blanco et al., 2017), a phenomenon seen in many other European forests (Sardans et al., 2016).

## **5. Conclusion:**

The complex interactions among climate (precipitation, temperature, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>) and nutrients had not been studied in an integrative way at ecosystem-level before. Our most important advancement beyond the state of the art is the ranking and quantification of the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect compared with other growth limiting factors. Almost all the literature generated for Scots pine forests in SW Europe is focused on empirical-only, inventory-related measures, which do not provide ecophysiological explanations or estimation of future changes in efficiency of using different growth resources (nutrients, water, temperature, carbon).

Our results indicated that the CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect, while positively affecting ecosystem C accumulation, could counteract only a minor part of the growth limitation imposed by N and climate. In addition, the ranking in importance of N and climate is directly inverse to the present importance of such limitation. In other words, in forests which are poor in N but precipitation is not a limiting factor, soil moisture could account for the biggest portion of growth limitation under climate change condition. Similarly, in forests where enough N is available but soil moisture is low, trees have acclimated to water limitation and therefore apparently they are less ready to deal with N limitation. In conclusion, trees focus their efforts on overcoming the current limiting factors, but that strategy leaves them unadapted to other events that would made factors usually non-limiting to become scarce. Such situation is expected owing to the process of global change generated by anthropic activities.

Finally, our results also point that if accurate estimations of future C pools in forests are needed, the most effective way is to reduce the uncertainty related to climate model selection, namely, to reduce the disagreement between different climate model estimations. Such way seems much more efficient to reduce uncertainty when estimating forest C pools than the addition of detailed ecophysiological processes in process-based forest models (such as CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization), which imply big efforts in modelling development and calibration but do not noticeably change predicted temporal trajectories of forest C pools.

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**Table 1.** Average effect size caused by each growth-limiting factor and the combination of all of them on different carbon pools, at two sites and under two climate scenarios. Values are percentages of the light-only estimation.

Site	Climate Scenario	C pool	Nitrogen	Climate	CO <sub>2</sub>	Combined
Mediterranean	RCP 4.5	Ecosystem C	-12.2	-8.2	0.7	-14.8
		Litter + CWD C	-17.0	-10.3	0.1	-20.0
		Belowground C	1.0	-7.7	0.1	-7.4
		Aboveground C	-13.2	-6.3	1.4	-13.1
	RCP 8.5	Ecosystem C	-12.3	-8.0	1.2	-12.3
		Litter + CWD C	-17.3	-11.7	-0.3	-19.7
		Belowground C	1.2	-8.9	0.1	-8.4
		Aboveground C	-13.0	-4.0	2.8	-7.3
Continental	RCP 4.5	Ecosystem C	-2.2	-14.5	0.3	-10.6
		Litter + CWD C	5.4	-10.2	0.2	4.7
		Belowground C	-4.2	-5.1	0.1	-9.4
		Aboveground C	-2.2	-20.7	0.5	-13.3
	RCP 8.5	Ecosystem C	-2.3	-12.1	0.6	-7.4
		Litter + CWD C	5.4	-11.8	0.4	3.5
		Belowground C	-4.2	-6.2	0.1	-10.5
		Aboveground C	-2.1	-15.8	0.8	-6.9

## List of figures

**Figure 1.** The top panel shows the climatic diagrams for the study sites for the period 1975-2004 for the Mediterranean site and the continental site. Y: number of years considered; T: mean annual temperature (°C); P: mean annual amount of precipitation (mm). Oblique striped area shows months with an absolute minimum temperature below 0 °C. The bottom left panel shows the location of the experimental plots (circles) used to calibrate the FORECSAT Climate, the weather stations providing historical climate (triangles), and the weather stations averaged for climate change scenarios projection (stars). The bottom right panel shows the location of the area in the Iberian Peninsula with the distribution of Scots pine in the region (EUFORGEN, 2009).

**Figure 2.** Average projections of C pools for a Mediterranean Scots pine forest in the southwestern Pyrenees when different limiting factors are simulated.

**Figure 3.** Average projections of C pools for a continental Scots pine forest in the southwestern Pyrenees when different limiting factors are simulated.

**Figure 4.** Confidence intervals (95%) of the average C pool projection for a Mediterranean Scots pine forests in the southwestern Pyrenees when different limiting factors are simulated. The lines with the same color (black, red or blue), represent the upper and lower limits of each simulation type. Shaded areas represent the uncertainty regions for each type, being the priority for showing colors first grey (full model), then red (light + climate + CO<sub>2</sub>) and last blue (light + climate).

**Figure 5.** Confidence intervals (95%) of the average C pool projection for a Mediterranean Scots pine forests in the southwestern Pyrenees when different limiting factors are simulated. The lines with the same color (black, red or blue), represent the upper and lower limits of each type of simulation. Shaded areas represent the uncertainty regions for each type, being the priority for showing colors first grey (full model), then red (light + climate + CO<sub>2</sub>) and last blue (light + climate).

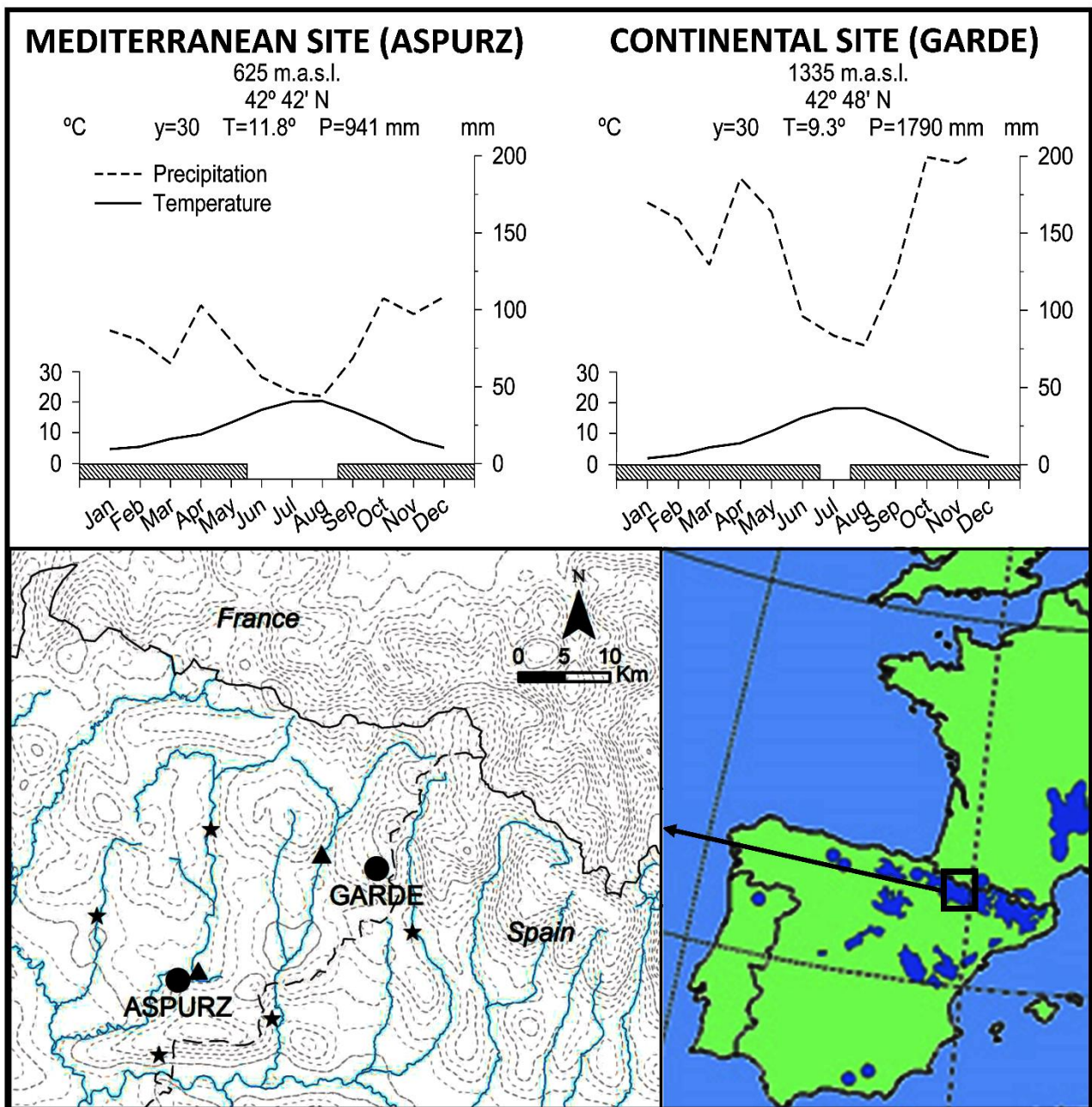


Figure 1



### MEDITERRANEAN FOREST

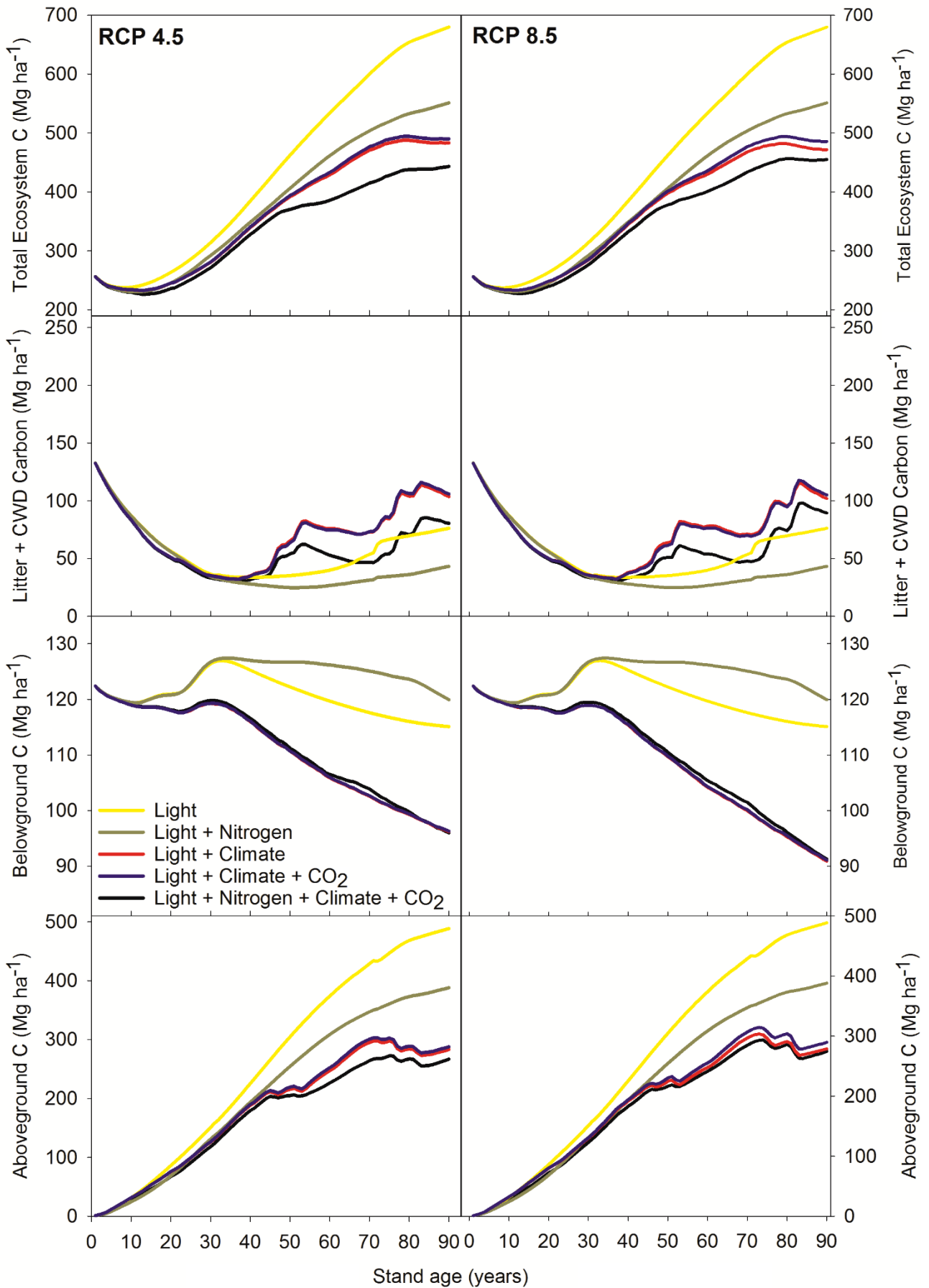


Figure 2.

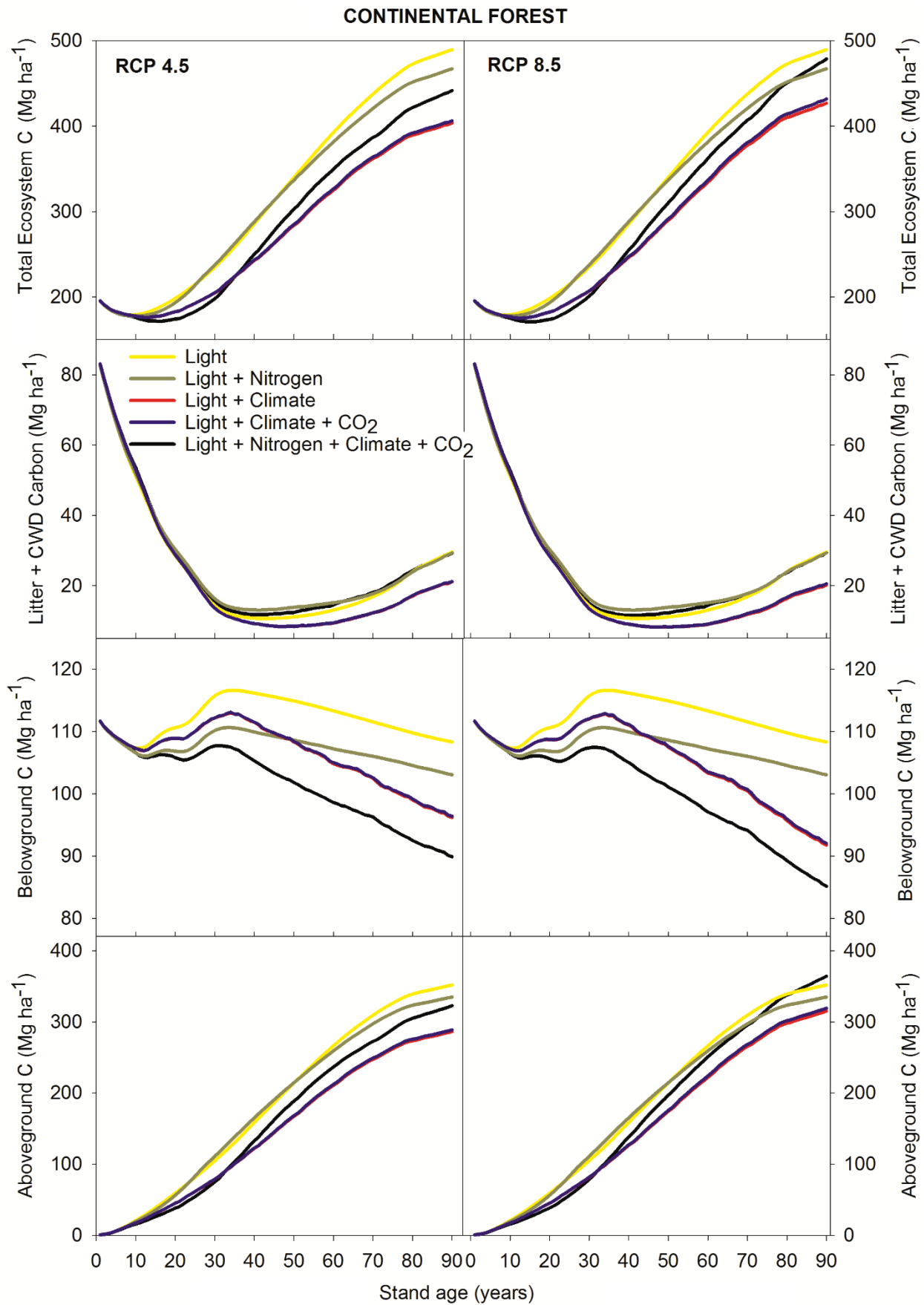


Figure 3.

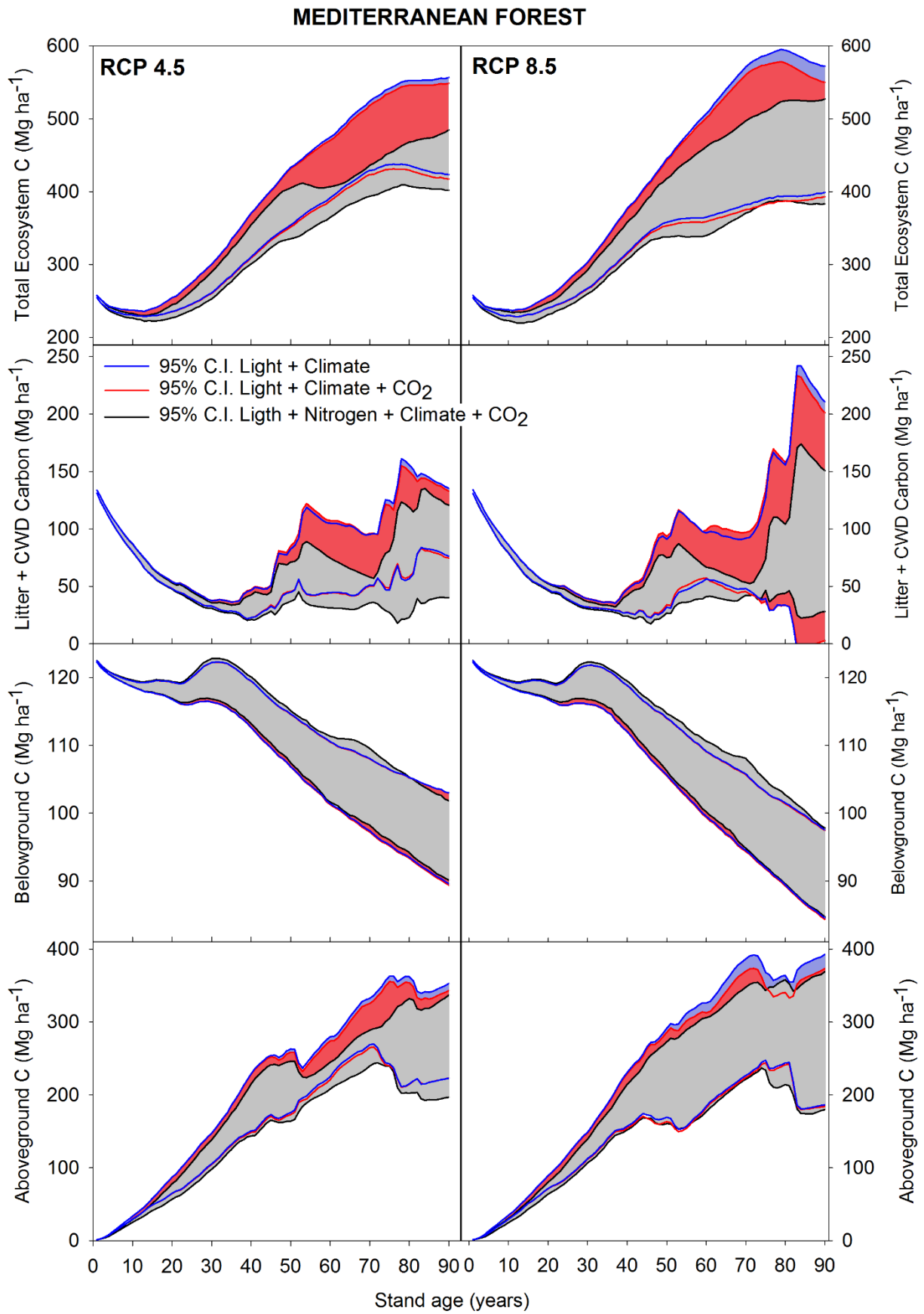


Figure 4.

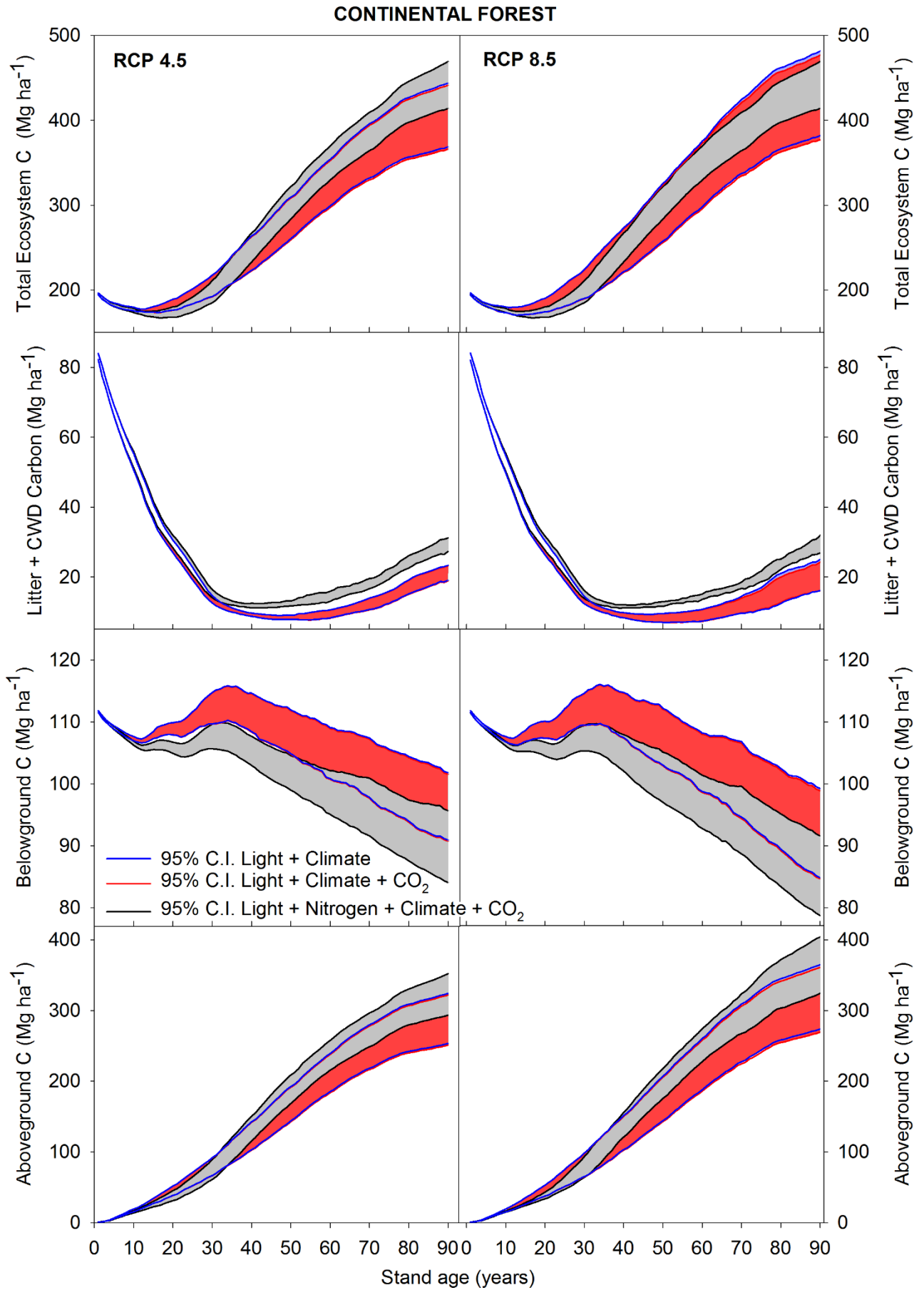


Figure 5.