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Tree mortality drives recent changes in functional composition across European forests

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Abstract:	Intense droughts combined with increased temperatures are one of the major threats to forest persistence in the 21st century. Despite the direct impact of climate change on forest growth and shifts in species abundance, the effect of altered demography on changes in the composition of functional traits is not well known. We sought to: (1) quantify the changes in functional composition of European forests; (2) identify the relative importance of climate change, mean climate and forest development for changes in functional composition; and (3) analyse the roles of tree mortality and growth underlying any functional changes in different forest types. We quantified changes in functional composition of functional trait variation: the first dimension was mainly related to changes in leaf mass per area

and wood density (i.e. angiosperm vs. gymnosperm dichotomy), and the second dimension related to changes in maximum tree height. Our results indicate that climate change and mean climatic effects strongly interacted with forest development and it was not possible to completely disentangle their effects. Where recent climate change was not too extreme the patterns of functional change generally followed the expected patterns under secondary succession (e.g. larger proportion gymnosperms in forest widely distributed in Europe and changes towards higher maximum tree heights) and latitudinal gradients (e.g. larger proportion of gymnosperm strategies at low water availability in broad-leaved deciduous forests). Recent climate change favoured the dominance of angiosperms under increased temperature and, under intense droughts generally resulted in a major dominance of a functional strategy different from the dominant one. Our results show substantial changes in functional composition over relatively short time scales in European forests, and indicate the key role of tree mortality, which should be further investigated to adequately predict the impacts of climate change.

SCHC Man

1 Tree mortality drives recent changes in functional composition across European forests

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- 45 **Running head**: Functional composition changes in forests

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- 51 temperature anomaly, tree growth.
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56 Abstract

57 Intense droughts combined with increased temperatures are one of the major threats to forest persistence in the 21st century. Despite the direct impact of climate change on forest growth 58 59 and shifts in species abundance, the effect of altered demography on changes in the composition of functional traits is not well known. We sought to: (1) quantify the changes in 60 61 functional composition of European forests; (2) identify the relative importance of climate 62 change, mean climate and forest development for changes in functional composition; and (3) 63 analyse the roles of tree mortality and growth underlying any functional changes in different 64 forest types. We quantified changes in functional composition from the 1980s to the 2000s 65 across Europe by two dimensions of functional trait variation: the first dimension was mainly 66 related to changes in leaf mass per area and wood density (i.e. angiosperm vs. gymnosperm 67 dichotomy), and the second dimension related to changes in maximum tree height. Our 68 results indicate that climate change and mean climatic effects strongly interacted with forest 69 development and it was not possible to completely disentangle their effects. Where recent 70 climate change was not too extreme the patterns of functional change generally followed the 71 expected patterns under secondary succession (e.g. larger proportion gymnosperms in forest 72 widely distributed in Europe and changes towards higher maximum tree heights) and 73 latitudinal gradients (e.g. larger proportion of gymnosperm strategies at low water availability 74 in broad-leaved deciduous forests). Recent climate change favoured the dominance of 75 angiosperms under increased temperature and, under intense droughts generally resulted in a 76 major dominance of a functional strategy different from the dominant one. Our results show 77 substantial changes in functional composition over relatively short time scales in European 78 forests, and indicate the key role of tree mortality, which should be further investigated to 79 adequately predict the impacts of climate change.

80 Introduction

81

82 Human-mediated modifications of natural ecosystems are leading to important diversity 83 losses and changes in species forest composition (Chapin *et al.*, 2000, Cardinale *et al.*, 2012), 84 thus directly affecting the functions and services provided by forests (Gamfeldt *et al.*, 2013, 85 van der Plas et al., 2016). During the last decades changes in mean climate and alterations in 86 the climatic extremes have led to changes in tree demography (Allen et al., 2015), forest 87 productivity (Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014b), carbon cycle (Frank et al., 2015) and resilience (Matusick *et al.*, 2016). There is a long tradition of studies analysing how functional traits 88 89 change along climatic gradients (Díaz et al., 2016). However, studies investigating how 90 temporal changes in functional trait distributions are driven by changing climatic conditions, 91 and then quantifying potential changes in functional composition, are rare (see Dubuis et al., 92 2013, Mokany *et al.*, 2015).

93 The effect of climate on community dynamics (i.e. changes in the abundance and 94 composition of species and functional groups) operates through the modification of 95 population demographic rates (mainly mortality, growth and regeneration, Oliver & Larson, 96 1996, Pretzsch, 2009). Climate change effects –particularly intense droughts and increased 97 temperatures – have already translated into increased tree mortality (Allen *et al.*, 2015), which 98 may lead to important changes in forest species distribution (e.g. Benito-Garzón *et al.*, 2013). 99 It has been hypothesised that abrupt vegetation shifts may occur as a consequence of drought-100 induced mortality: examples range from temperate evergreen forests (e.g. high vulnerability 101 of Pinus sylvestris in south and central Europe, Galiano et al., 2010) to temperate 102 broadleaved forests (e.g. high vulnerability of Nothofagus dombeyi in SW Argentina, Suarez 103 & Kitzberger, 2008). However, changes in community composition due to increased stress

will depend on the individual species' vulnerability to increased drought and interactions with
stand development (Lloret *et al.*, 2012, Reyer *et al.*, 2015).

106 The effect of climate change on forest species composition and functioning might depend on 107 the functional traits of the dominant species (e.g. Jucker et al., 2014, Ratcliffe et al., 2016, 108 Ruiz-Benito et al., 2016), legacy effects (e.g. past management, disturbance and previous 109 extreme droughts; Bengtsson et al., 2000, Anderegg et al., 2015, Clark et al., 2016, Perring et 110 al., 2016), and forest succession and development (e.g. Ruiz-Benito et al., 2013, García-111 Valdés et al., 2015). Co-variation and trade-offs between traits implies that functional 112 strategies can be summarized using a few axes of trait variation (Westoby, 1998, Westoby et 113 al., 2002). The axes of variation generally correspond well to angiosperm vs. gymnosperm 114 strategies, which also have many contrasting functional traits that can be linked to the 115 individual response to environmental conditions (Brodribb et al., 2012, Carnicer et al., 2013). 116 It has been suggested that gymnosperms have a greater ability to withstand abiotic stress (i.e. 117 high persistence) while angiosperms have a greater competitive ability and tend to dominate in diverse forests (Coomes et al., 2005, Carnicer et al., 2013). Despite the current evidence 118 119 from regional to global scales of increased tree mortality due to higher temperatures and 120 intense droughts (Anderegg et al., 2013), little is known about the actual impact of climate 121 change on changes in forest functional trait composition. The use of functional traits is 122 emerging as a promising approach to study the impacts of climate change on ecosystem 123 functioning (Suding et al., 2008, Violle et al., 2014), because alterations in the dominance of 124 key functional traits can be directly linked to changes in ecosystem functioning (see Table 1). 125

Here, we quantified recent changes in forest functional composition through changes in the dominance of five key functional traits using resurveyed data from *c*. 68,000 permanent forest plots including 143 species spanning Mediterranean to temperate and boreal climates. Our objectives were to: (1) quantify the main temporal changes in functional composition of

European forests; (2) identify the relative importance of climate change, mean climate and forest development; and (3) disentangle the roles of tree mortality and growth underlying any changes in different forest types. To our knowledge, these analyses for the first time link large-scale spatial changes in forest functional composition with recent temporal changes in climate, revealing critical information for predicting future changes in species composition and forest ecosystem function.

135 Materials and methods

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137 Inventory platform and study area

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139 We compiled data from the National Forest Inventories (NFIs) of Finland, Germany, Spain, 140 Sweden and Wallonia (Belgium) (see a detailed description in Appendix S1 and Table S1) 141 covering the large latitudinal gradient of Europe (c. 5.000 km). For each tree we compiled 142 information on the species identity (see Table S2), d.b.h. and status (alive or dead). To select 143 comparable data from the inventories we only included re-surveyed plots with a basal area equal or greater than $4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ and trees with a minimum d.b.h. of 10 cm in the consecutive 144 145 surveys; and we only included plots where the time between surveys was equal to or larger 146 than 5 years (mean = 11.32).

147 European forests cover a large latitudinal and climatic gradient extending from boreal 148 to temperate and Mediterranean climates (Fig. 1). We classified each plot according to (i) the abundance of the species depending on leaf type and habit (i.e. broad- vs. needle-leaved, 149 150 deciduous vs. evergreen), and (ii) the Mediterranean character of the species (i.e. some 151 species are restricted to Mediterranean climates, while others distribute from boreal to 152 temperate and Sub-Mediterranean biomes, see Table 1). We used this classification because 153 we expected angiosperm and gymnosperm forests to have different responses to drought and 154 increased temperature (Brodribb et al., 2012, Carnicer et al., 2013) and the response to 155 climate may be different in forests well adapted to limited water availability (e.g. Grossiord et 156 al., 2014). From the c. 68,000 permanent plots, we only considered forest types with more 157 than 1,000 plots: broad-leaved deciduous (15,234 plots), needle-leaved evergreen (32,215 158 plots), needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean (9,395 plots) and broad-leaved evergreen 159 Mediterranean forests (5,550 plots, Fig. 1).

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161 Patterns of change in functional composition across European forests

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Functional composition was calculated as the community-level weighted means (i.e. mean 163 164 value of each trait in each plot weighted by the relative abundance of each species in basal area terms; Lavorel et al., 2008). We used five traits: leaf mass per area (LMA, g m⁻²), wood 165 density (WD, g cm⁻³), seed mass (SM, mg), water potential causing 50% loss of hydraulic 166 conductivity (P50, MPa), and maximum tree height (MTH, m). Trait information was 167 168 compiled via the TRY Initiative (http://www.try-db.org; Kattge et al., 2011) and additional 169 references (Table S2). We quantified changes in functional composition as the absolute 170 annual change in each functional trait selected instead of a relative change, because it informs 171 about the direction of the change and its magnitude (i.e. positive or negative, and the absolute 172 value of the change, Fig. 1 and Fig. S2). There were strong correlations in the absolute 173 changes in different functional traits (Fig. S3) and, thus, we explored the relationship between 174 the response variables using a Principal Component Analyses (R Development Core, 2014). 175 We used the first two axes of the PCA as representative of the changes in functional 176 composition; as between them they explained 70% of the variation in the functional changes.

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178 Potential drivers of changes in forest functional composition

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Each forest inventory plot was characterised by climate, stand development and demographic rate variables (see Fig. S1). Climate was defined by variables related to a selection of its components: (i) *mean climate*: potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm), aridity (i.e. PET/annual precipitation, adimensional), and water availability (i.e. (annual precipitation – PET)/PET, %), downloaded from CGIAR-CSI GeoPortal (Zomer *et al.*, 2008); (ii) *recent*

185 changes in mean climate: temperature and precipitation anomaly, defined as the difference 186 between the mean temperature or precipitation for the study period (i.e. years between the 187 two consecutive inventories plus two years before the first survey) and the mean value for the 188 reference period (1900-2010) in each of the NFI plots (UDel AirT Precip data, Boulder, 189 Colorado, USA); and (iii) recent climate change due to drought events: mean SPEI (mean 190 standardised precipitation-evapotranspiration index value for the period between the 191 inventory surveys, adimensional), frequency of dry years (i.e. years between the consecutive inventories with SPEI < 0, No. of years), and the most intense drought (a dimension less 192 193 index calculated as the lowest SPEI value between the consecutive inventories); calculated 194 from SPEIbase v2.2. (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010). From this list of variables we selected 195 variables representative of each aspect that were not strongly correlated and had low 196 Variance Inflation Factor (i.e. r < 0.6 and VIF < 4, see Dormann *et al.*, 2013): (i) water 197 availability (WAI, %), (ii) temperature anomaly (TA, C), and (iii) the most intense drought 198 (ID, adimensional)

To represent *stand development* we selected tree density (No. trees ha⁻¹), mean d.b.h. 199 (mm) and the functional diversity of each plot. Functional diversity was calculated as the 200 201 functional dispersion (FD), i.e. the average distance of individual species trait values to the 202 centroid of the functional trait space of all tree species present in the plot in the first census 203 based on a presence-absence matrix (Laliberté & Legendre, 2010). We based FD on all five 204 traits included in the functional composition metric because multiple key traits are desirable 205 to adequately represent potential niche differences and, therefore, functional diversity (Ruiz-206 Benito et al., 2014a, Kraft et al., 2015). Finally, to represent demography we used: (i) tree growth (cm² ha⁻¹ vr⁻¹) calculated as the annual sum of the basal area increment due to growth 207 of surviving trees and ingrowth; and (ii) tree mortality (cm² ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹) calculated as the annual 208 209 basal area lost due to natural mortality between consecutive inventories.

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211	Statistical analysis
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213	The importance of climate, stand development and demography on changes in functional
214	composition were assessed using three steps. Firstly, we evaluated changes in functional
215	composition of European forests as described above. Secondly, we identified the climatic and
216	forest developmental drivers of changes in functional composition using linear mixed-effect
217	models. Thirdly, we quantified the effect of demographic rates on changes in functional
218	composition using piecewise structural equation models.
219	
220	Patterns of change in functional composition depending on climate and forest
221	development
222	
223	We modelled absolute changes in functional composition (PC1 and PC2 axes) using linear
224	mixed-effects models with a normal distribution of residuals. Due to the hierarchical nature
225	of the sampling (where plots are aggregated in clusters for some countries; see Appendix S1
226	for more information), we included cluster identity nested in country as a random effect in the
227	model to account for the lack of independence between the plots.
228	Based on our expectations of climatic and stand developmental effects on the changes
229	in functional composition, we included seven potential fixed effects (transformed where
230	necessary to meet assumptions of normality): water availability (WAI, %), temperature
231	anomaly (TA, C), the most intense drought (ID, adimensional), tree density (TD, log, No.
232	trees ha-1), mean d.b.h. (dm, log, mm), functional diversity (FD, sqrt, adimensional), and
233	forest type (FT, see Fig. 1 and Fig. S1). We tested pair-wise interactions based on our initial
234	hypothesis of interactive effects between climate and stand development. We also tested the

interactions between climatic variables (i.e. WAI × TA, WAI × ID, TA × ID) to control for the differential effects of mean climate and recent climate change (Ruiz-Benito *et al.*, 2014b). All the numerical variables were examined for outliers and departures from normality; standardised (i.e. the mean was subtracted for each value and divided by the standard deviation); and the linearity of the relationships of each predictor with the response variable was later checked (i.e. through partial residual plots for each predictor variable in the final model) (see Schielzeth, 2010, Ieno & Zuur, 2015).

242 The most parsimonious model was determined using AIC (Akaike Information 243 Criterion) as an indicator of both parsimony and likelihood (Burnham & Anderson, 2002). To 244 identify the best-supported model, we first constructed candidate models in which each of the 245 interactions were dropped. If the difference in AIC between the reduced and full models was 246 less than two then the simpler model was selected, because it indicates substantial support for the model selected (Hilborn & Mangel, 1997, Burnham & Anderson, 2002). The process was 247 248 then repeated for all the independent variables, each time comparing one individual predictor 249 variable with a model containing all response variables without any interactions, using the 250 differences in AIC to quantify the relative importance of each predictor variable. Finally, 251 parameter estimates and confidence intervals of the best-supported model were obtained 252 using restricted maximum likelihood (REML), which minimises the likelihood of the 253 residuals from the fixed-effect portions of the model (Zuur et al., 2009). Pseudo-R2 254 (proportion of variance explained by both the fixed and random factors) was used to provide 255 an estimation of variance explained by fixed and random terms (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 256 2013).

The predicted changes in functional composition for each forest type and explanatory variable (varying between the observed 99% percentiles) were computed using the bestsupported model, fixing the values of the other continuous variables at their observed mean

(Table 1). These three dimensional predicted changes were visualised using heat graphs and
the actual occurrence of the change in the NFI data for each forest types was indicated by
black lines as a convex hull using aplpack library (Wolf & Bielefeld, 2014). All linear mixed
effect models were fitted using lme4 library (Bates *et al.*, 2015) in R version 3.2.2. (R Core
Team, 2015).

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266 Changes in functional composition due to mortality and growth

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268 We conducted piecewise structural equation modelling (Shipley, 2009) to test the relative 269 importance of tree mortality and growth rates on changes in functional composition and to 270 understand how patterns varied between the forest types, while accounting for the interactive 271 effects of climate and stand development (see hypotheses in Fig. 2 and Fig. S4). The 272 predictors included the exogenous variables (i.e. whose variance arose from outside the 273 model) related to climate (water availability, temperature anomaly and intense droughts) and 274 stand development (density, mean d.b.h. and functional diversity). We considered as endogenous variables (i.e. those whose variation the model seeks to explain): (i) demography, 275 i.e. tree growth (log, $m^2 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$) and tree mortality (log +0.01, $m^2 ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$), because it has 276 277 been demonstrated that they both depend on climate and stand development; and (ii) changes 278 in functional composition quantified as the first two PCA axes of the changes in the five 279 functional traits.

The confirmatory multilevel path analysis was constructed to test the effects of demography on changes in functional composition, while accounting for climate and stand development, using the acyclic causal graphs (see Fig. S4). The model was evaluated using dsep method, where the validity of each path model is tested by deriving a set of independence claims from each graph (Shipley, 2009). Using the mixed effects models (i.e. when

applicable the random effect of country and cluster identity was included), the probabilities p_i of each of the *k* independent claims are obtained, which are then combined into the Fisher's *C* statistic:

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$$C = -2\sum_{i=1}^{k} ln(p_i)$$

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which follows a chi-squared distribution with 2k degrees of freedom (where k is equal the number of pairs in the basis set). Fisher's *C* statistic was used to obtain a value of Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) as: AIC = C + 2K, where *K* is the likelihood degrees of freedom (i.e. total number of free parameters, see Shipley, 2013).

294 A multilevel path analysis was first performed for the entire dataset, including all the 295 forest types, which allowed us to detect general trends in the changes in functional composition related to demography, climate, stand structure and diversity. Pseudo-R2 296 297 (proportion of variance explained by both the fixed and random factors) was used to provide 298 an estimation of variance explained by fixed and random terms (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 299 2013). The analysis was repeated on each forest type separately (i.e. one model per forest 300 type) to identify any forest type-specific trends. All analyses were conducted in R using the piecewiseSEM library (Lefcheck, 2015) in R 3.2.0. (R Core Team, 2015). 301

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Recent patterns of change in functional composition across European forests

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306 We analysed absolute changes in the CWMs of five functional traits. Our exploratory 307 analysis indicated shifts to both positive and negative values for all five traits (i.e. both 308 smaller and larger CWM values, Fig. S2) but we did not observe any clear spatial pattern of 309 change (Fig. S5). The results of the PCA performed with the five functional traits showed 310 that the first axis (explaining 50% of the variance) was strongly and negatively correlated to 311 changes in LMA and positively correlated to changes in WD, P50 and SM (Fig. 3 and Fig. 312 S3). These functional traits are strongly associated with functional strategies that distinguish 313 between angiosperms and gymnosperms: positive values of PC1 reflect a greater dominance 314 of angiosperm strategies, whereas negative values reflect a greater dominance of 315 gymnosperm strategies (see Fig. S6). The second axis of the PCA (explaining 20% of the 316 variance) was highly and negatively correlated with changes in MTH (Fig. 3 and Fig. S3). 317 The second axis of the PCA relates to the differential competitive ability of species and 318 successional status (Table 1). We selected the first and second axes of the PCA for our 319 modelling approach (i.e. hereafter named PC1 and PC2) as representative of the major 320 changes in forest functional composition across Europe.

321

322 The interactive effect of climate and forest development drives recent changes in forest 323 functional composition

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Full models of changes in functional composition based on PC1 and PC2 included all predictor variables for each forest type (see Table 2, model residuals in Fig. S7 and Fig. S8

327 and standardised parameter values in Table S4). Our results indicate interactive effects of 328 climate and forest development on changes in functional composition, particularly between 329 climate and functional diversity (i.e. both for PC1 and PC2, Table 2). In models predicting 330 PC1 (i.e. different functional strategies), the inclusion of variables related to recent climate 331 change was supported, but its importance was lower than for forest development (see drop in 332 ΔAIC in Table 2 when temperature anomalies and intense droughts were dropped). In models 333 predicting PC2, functional diversity and water availability were the most strongly supported variables (Table 2). 334

335 Figures 4 and 5 represent the predicted changes in functional composition measured 336 through the PC1 and PC2 axis, respectively, for each forest type (see density plots in Fig. S9 337 and relative changes in PC1 in Fig. S10). The graphics have been coloured to reflect the 338 direction of the change along the PCA axes. PC1 is related to shifts in functional trait values 339 towards a higher proportion of angiosperm (blue colour in Fig. 4 means positive changes in 340 PC1) or gymnosperms (red colour in Fig. 4 means negative changes in PC1, Fig. S2). PC2 341 was related to changes in maximum tree height (brown colour in Fig. 5 means decreases in 342 maximum tree height).

343 In broad-leaved deciduous forests greater shifts in functional strategy (i.e. larger 344 dominance of gymnosperms, corresponding to red colours in Fig. 4a) occurred where low 345 water availability co-occurred with medium-high tree density or mean d.b.h.; where low 346 temperature anomalies co-occurred with low mean d.b.h.; and in plots with high functional 347 diversity or under intense droughts. In needle-leaved evergreen forests the greatest shifts in 348 functional strategy (i.e. higher proportion of angiosperms corresponding to blue colours in 349 Fig. 4b) occurred where relatively mild droughts co-occurred with large trees; and in plots 350 with low functional diversity. In the case of Mediterranean forests we found similar patterns 351 for broad- and needle-leaved species. Changes towards a stronger dominance of angiosperm

352 strategies in Mediterranean forests (i.e. blue colours in Fig. 4c,d) were observed at high water 353 availability, high temperature anomalies, relatively mild droughts, high tree density and large 354 mean tree sizes. The only clear difference between the two forest types was the interaction 355 between water availability and tree density: Mediterranean broad-leaved forests tended to 356 change towards larger proportions of gymnosperms at low water availability irrespective of 357 tree density, whereas this pattern was not clear in Mediterranean coniferous forests.

358 PC2 was related to changes in maximum tree height (Fig. 3). The strongest 359 interactions between climate and stand development on changes in PC2 occurred in 360 Mediterranean conifers followed by broad-leaved deciduous forests (Fig. 5). In 361 Mediterranean conifers most of the changes were towards increases in MTH (i.e. negative 362 values of PC2), especially at high functional diversity and medium to high mean tree density 363 and d.b.h., and under intense droughts (Fig. 5d). The same patterns of change towards greater 364 MTH were observed in broad-leaved deciduous forests, except in areas with high water 365 availability and temperature anomaly (Fig. 5c).

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367 Mortality and growth effects on recent changes in functional composition

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369 Overall, tree mortality had a larger effect on changes in functional composition than tree growth (i.e. PC1 and PC2, see standardised effect sizes in Fig. 6), but the variance explained 370 371 by growth was greater than for mortality (R²: 0.58, 0.41, respectively; see Fig. 6). The effect 372 of mortality was particularly strong and positive on PC1, which reflected a general change 373 towards strategies with lower leaf mass per area and higher wood density, seed mass and 374 water potential loss (i.e. angiosperm strategies). For PC2 the mortality effect was negative 375 and the magnitude was less strong, which reflected a weak decrease in maximum tree heights. 376 Furthermore, we found that the sign of the relationship between mortality and growth on

- 377 changes in functional composition was consistent for all the forest types studied (see sign of
- standardised parameters in Table S5). The strongest effect of mortality on PC1 and PC2 was
- found in Mediterranean conifers (see magnitude of standardised parameters in Table S5).

380 **Discussion**

381 Our results suggest that recent climate change –i.e. both increased temperature and intense 382 droughts- are critical drivers of recent changes in the functional composition of European 383 forests. Under climate change the functional changes analysed were not always in the 384 expected direction of succession. Overall, the importance of the interaction between climate 385 and forest development agrees with previous studies that identified similar strong interactions 386 for tree growth (e.g. Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2011, Ruiz-Benito et al., 2015), tree mortality 387 (e.g. Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2011, Ruiz-Benito et al., 2013), recruitment (e.g. Carnicer et al., 388 2014, Zhang *et al.*, 2015) and total changes in basal area and carbon storage (Vayreda *et al.*, 389 2012, Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014b). We found that the interactive nature of the drivers 390 underlying changes in functional composition was due to differential tree demography (Clark 391 et al., 2014, Zhang et al., 2015), and that it appears to critically depend on tree mortality rates 392 (Allen *et al.*, 2015).

393 Here, we summarised the changes in functional composition through the variation in 394 two-dimensional axes of change related to: (i) the functional strategies of the species, 395 reflecting differences in a continuum of traits from high leaf mass per area and low wood 396 densities to low leaf mass per area and high wood density; and (ii) maximum tree height. 397 Overall, the two axes of variation are in line with the Leaf-Height-Seed scheme (Westoby, 398 1998), which captures variation in functional traits while considering the importance of stem 399 density for woody plants (Chave et al., 2009, Reich, 2014). These axes of variation reflect the 400 two dominant strategies of gymnosperms and angiosperms (Stahl et al., 2014) and correspond 401 to the major trends of variation found in plant forms worldwide (Díaz et al., 2016). The first 402 axis (leaf mass – wood density) is a good predictor of resource use and responses to 403 environmental conditions (Table 1). In turn it corresponds to a change towards a greater 404 proportion of angiosperms or gymnosperms and, therefore, can be interpreted as changes in

dominance of the angiosperm vs. gymnosperm functional strategy of each forest type. The
second axis (maximum tree height) is strongly related to the differential competitive ability of
the species and, therefore, to the successional progress of each forest stand (Table 1).
Although changes in each functional trait can be highly informative we selected the PCA
axes for an overall understanding of community-level functional changes, which is needed to
further manage ecosystems and understand potential effects of climate change (see e.g. de
Bello *et al.*, 2010).

412

413 Recent climate change impacts on recent changes in functional strategies across 414 European forests

415

Recent climate change, via increases in temperature and intense droughts, is leading to 416 417 directional changes across European forests, but these changes are also dependent on forest 418 development. In relatively mature forests with large temperature anomalies we found a 419 change towards a greater proportion of angiosperms in all forest types except conifer forests 420 distributed across the entire latitudinal European gradient. Our observation that gymnosperms 421 could be more vulnerable to increases in temperature and water stress agrees with recent 422 studies that observed high mortality in conifers (McDowell et al., 2016), and studies 423 suggesting that warming could be promoting climatic conditions more favourable for 424 angiosperms (e.g. Henne et al., 2015, McIntyre et al., 2015). However, we cannot discount 425 the possibility that the observed functional changes towards a greater proportion of 426 angiosperm strategies under increased temperature may be coupled to land-use changes 427 promoting an increase in the relative abundance of oaks and other hardwoods (Carnicer et al., 428 2014, Henne et al., 2015, Vayreda et al., 2016). Angiosperms have been favoured by 429 relatively recent processes that affect secondary succession, such as agricultural abandonment

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430 and changes in management practices –e.g. coppicing, charcoal production– (Barberó *et al.*,
431 1998, Urbieta *et al.*, 2008, Müllerová *et al.*, 2015).

432 Functional changes towards a different strategy than the dominant one occurred under 433 intense droughts in relatively mature forests of all forest types. However, this change was not 434 observed in conifers of low-medium size (i.e. mean d.b.h. < 400 mm) and at low diversity 435 (Fig. 4). The apparent shift in functional strategy is in accordance with previous studies that 436 suggest trade-offs between plant size and drought tolerance (Ryan et al., 2006, Moles et al., 437 2009, Bennett et al., 2015). The change towards traits linked to gymnosperm strategies in 438 broad-leaved forests and small changes in conifer forests could be due to the highest 439 mortality or lowest growth of the most dominant functional strategy in relatively mature 440 forests, because all species are likely to be stressed if the drought is very extreme and water 441 availability is too limiting (Choat et al., 2012).

442

Patterns of change in functional strategies and maximum tree height reflect expected patterns of change due to secondary succession and biogeography

445

446 The recent changes in functional strategies (i.e. changes in PC1) across Europe were strongly 447 dependent on the functional diversity and water availability of the forest stand, indicating that 448 they mainly followed successional and biogeographical expectations. The influence of 449 diversity was strong when compared to climatic variables, leading to clear patterns of change 450 in all forest types, following the expected secondary succession patterns (Fig. 4). In 451 Mediterranean forests we found greater shifts in the dominance of angiosperms in high 452 diverse stands, whereas in forest distributed across the entire latitudinal gradient of Europe a 453 greater dominance of gymnosperms and high diversity were linked. The trends observed at 454 high diversity agree with the expectations of the secondary successional trajectory expected

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455 in the different forest types, which in Mediterranean forests generally leads to a greater 456 dominance of late-successional hardwoods (Zavala & Zea, 2004, Carnicer et al., 2014, Vayreda et al., 2016). In contrast, forests distributed from temperate to boreal European 457 biomes are generally changing towards a greater dominance of late-successional conifers 458 (e.g. Angelstam & Kuuluvainen, 2004, Ratcliffe et al., 2016). The change towards a greater 459 460 dominance of gymnosperms at high diversity could also be due to the relatively higher 461 growth rates of co-existing conifers when compared to slow-growing angiosperms, despite 462 their lower competitive ability (e.g. Zavala *et al.*, 2000, Coomes *et al.*, 2005).

463 The observed shifts in functional strategies along the latitudinal gradient of Europe 464 (i.e. delineated by water availability, Fig. S1a) agree with the expected biogeographical 465 patterns of each forest type. Changes towards the most dominant functional trait values in 466 each forest type occur where water is not too limiting (Fig. 4), which might imply that water 467 availability is acting as a species filter at the continental scale (e.g. Šímová *et al.*, 2015). 468 Firstly, in broad-leaved forests at low water availabilities we found the greatest change towards a greater dominance of gymnosperms, suggesting increased growth of fast-growing 469 strategies (i.e. gymnosperms) and higher mortality of slow-growing strategies (i.e. 470 471 angiosperms, Fig. 4a,b). At the rear edge of broadleaved forests (i.e. generally related to low 472 water availability) an altered demography, where growth declines and mortality increases, 473 could be driving the observed changes in functional strategies (Hampe & Petit, 2005, Jump et 474 al., 2006). Secondly, in conifers we found a larger transition towards angiosperm strategies at 475 low water availability, which might be reflecting the expected altitudinal and latitudinal 476 transition (Benito-Garzón et al., 2013). Thirdly, in Mediterranean forests at high water 477 availability we found shifts in functional composition towards a greater proportion of 478 angiosperms, which agrees with observed recruitment trends along the Iberian Peninsula and

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479 it follows the expected advance of secondary succession (Vayreda *et al.*, 2013, Carnicer *et al.*, 2014, Vayreda *et al.*, 2016).

481 Most of the changes along climatic and forest development gradients were related to 482 increases in maximum tree height (see Fig. 5). Functional diversity and water availability 483 were the main drivers of the changes in maximum tree height, particularly in broad-leaved 484 and Mediterranean coniferous forests. At high diversity we found generally an increase in 485 maximum tree height, which might be reflecting the expected secondary succession trajectory 486 (Marks et al., 2016). In Mediterranean forests under intense droughts we found changes 487 towards taller trees in more mature forests. This is congruent with the importance of 488 maximum tree height for tree growth in the latitudinal extremes of Europe (Ratcliffe et al., 489 2016) and the greater dominance of tall trees expected in warm sites not limited by water 490 (Šímová et al., 2015) (i.e. high water availability and no extreme temperature anomalies), 491 particularly in mature forests. In areas where water is not limited we found that 492 Mediterranean conifer forests (i.e. maximum height c. 28 m, see Fig. S11) tended to shift 493 towards a higher dominance of tall species at high diversity, which agrees with the 494 successional change expected towards broad-leaved deciduous species (e.g. Fagus sylvatica, 495 Quercus robur, Q. petraea and Castanea sativa; maximum height c. 41 m, (Rivas-Martínez, 496 1987, Costa et al., 1997). However, in areas of low water availability and mild drought 497 changes towards shorter statured trees could be reflecting a transition towards Mediterranean 498 and Sub-Mediterranean species (e.g. maximum height of O. ilex and O. suber c. 19 m; and O. 499 faginea and Q. pyrenaica c. 24 m, see Fig. S11). The transition between Mediterranean 500 conifers and oaks is typical of the drier end of the water availability gradient, where a shifting 501 mosaic between pines and oaks depends on management and landscape heterogeneity (Zavala 502 et al., 2000, Zavala & Zea, 2004), in agreement with the current and past co-dominance of 503 these two groups in the Mediterranean from paleo-ecological data (Carrion *et al.*, 2001).

504

505 The role of demography underlying changes in functional composition

506

507 Our results suggest a critical role of tree mortality for changes in the functional composition of European forests undergoing secondary succession, which agrees with previous studies 508 509 conducted from tropical to temperate and boreal forests (van Mantgem & Stephenson, 2007, Lasky et al., 2014, Zhang et al., 2015). We identified tree mortality as a key driver of three 510 511 patterns of change in the functional strategies observed across European forests. (i) Increased 512 mortality of conifer species due to rising temperatures could be driving changes towards a 513 greater dominance of angiosperms across Europe, as predicted by McDowell et al. (2016) in 514 southwest USA, and changes observed towards contrasting functional groups compared to the 515 dominant species under intense droughts in mature forests (i.e. larger proportion of low wood 516 density and high leaf mass per area in broad-leaved forests). (ii) Increased mortality of 517 broadleaved species at the dry edge of temperate species broadly distributed across Europe 518 (i.e. at low water availability) may be leading to a greater dominance of gymnosperms at the 519 rear edge of broad-leaved deciduous forests, as for example those forests dominated by Fagus 520 sylvatica or Quercus robur (Peñuelas et al., 2013). (iii) The change towards a larger 521 proportion of angiosperms in Mediterranean mature forests, not strongly limited by water 522 availability, agrees with the greater role of mortality as compared to growth in forest 523 undergoing secondary succession, and might be associated with recent changes in forest 524 management across Europe. This change could be due to the fact that pioneer species (i.e. 525 conifers generally characterised by low wood density and high leaf mass per area) tend to 526 show the highest growth rates (Ratcliffe et al., 2016) but also the highest mortality rates (Benito-Garzón et al., 2013, Ruiz-Benito et al., 2013, Reich, 2014), leading to changes 527

- towards a larger proportion of angiosperms, as expected in Mediterranean climates (Urbieta *et al.*, 2008, Henne *et al.*, 2015).
- 530
- 531 Conclusions and implications
- 532

533 Overall, we found that changes in forest functional composition are largely driven by a trait-534 based differentiation of leaf-wood and height axis of functional traits (Díaz et al., 2016). We 535 found that most climatic and forest developmental conditions lead to functional changes in 536 accordance with forest successional pathways. However, we found that recent climate change 537 -i.e. increased temperature and intense droughts- might lead to different pathways of changes 538 in functional strategies than those expected only from succession. We concluded that 539 increased tree mortality is driving changes in functional strategies and maximum tree height 540 which is leading to quantifiable changes in the functional composition of European forests, 541 despite our greater ability to explain growth than mortality (Fig. 6). Our study suggest that 542 climatic and forest developmental interactions are critical to adequately predict forest responses under climate change (van Bodegom *et al.*, 2014). Further studies are critically 543 544 needed to understand drivers of tree mortality and link plant functional traits to ecosystem 545 functioning responses (Reichstein et al., 2014, Funk et al., 2016) and drought effects to 546 secondary succession and stand development (Clark et al., 2016).

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Additional Supporting Information may be found in the on-line version of this article:

Appendix S1 Further details of the individual National Forest Inventories.

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- 805 **Table S1** List of species present in the plots of the National Forest Inventories included in the 806 study. 807
 Table S2 Trait data used in the study.
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- Fig. S4 Acylic graph showing the schematic representation of variables included in piecewise 818 819 SEM.
- 820 Fig. S5 Map of the first and second axis of the Principal Component Analyses performed 821 with the functional traits.
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- 830 Fig. S11 Maximum tree height for main species in each forest type.

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Table 1. Functional traits used in this study, including their units, interpretation for ecosystem functioning and hypotheses that may explain
potential changes in forest composition. Also included whether the trait represents functional strategies that contrast between angiosperms
(ANG) and gymnosperm (GYM, based on Figure S1).

Trait	Functional interpretation of links to effects on Ecosystem Functions	Mechanisms leading changes*	ANG	GYM
Leaf mass per area (LMA, g m ²)	Absorption (light, nutrients) Primary productivity Herbivory	Competition ability and forest succession (growth less sensitive to competition in angiosperms: trade-off between carbon gain and longevity)	Low	High
Wood density (WD, g cm ⁻³)	Cell anatomy and resistance	Eco-physiological and hydraulic (angiosperms have higher capacity to reverse embolisms: trade-off between growth potential and embolism risk)	High	Low
Seed mass (SM, mg)	Dispersal, fecundity Response to disturbance	Life strategy (different strategies: trade-off between seedling survival versus colonization ability)	High	Low
Water potential causing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity (ψ_{50}, kpa)	Embolism resistance	Eco-physiological and hydraulic (angiosperms have narrower hydraulic safety margins)	High	Low
Maximum tree height (MTH, cm)	Light interception Primary productivity Response to disturbance	Competition ability (larger maximum tree height correlates with larger competitive abilities and successional progress)	*	*

Key references used: (Westoby, 1998, Chapin, 2003, Díaz et al., 2004, Moles et al., 2009, Choat et al., 2012, Carnicer et al., 2013, Reich, 2014,

835 Díaz *et al.*, 2016).

836 (*) No strong differences between angiosperms and gymnosperms were found (Fig. S6).

Table 2 Comparisons of alternate models based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)
to test main effects and pair-wise interactions supported for the first and second axes
(i.e. PC1 and PC2) of the Principal Component Analysis of the absolute change in leaf
mass per area, seed mass, wood density, maximum tree height and water potential
causing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity.

(a) Testing interactions	ΔAIC _{PC1}	ΔAIC _{PC2}	(b) Testing main effects	AAIC _{PC1}	ΔAIC _{PC2}
Full	0	0	Full	0	0
No WAI × TD	9	13	No WAI	486	1495
No TA × TD	21	18	No TA	589	240
No ID × TD	2	19	No ID	89	172
No WAI × d_m	32	91	No TD	802	113
No TA × d_m	64	16	No d _m	382	434
No ID × d_m	34	68	No FD	952	1619
No WAI × FD	148	510	AIC	230286	174982
No TA × FD	385	49	R ²	10.82	10.76
No ID × FD	80	33			
No ID × WAI	22	9			
No WAI × TA	50	5			
No TA × ID	71	24			

Comparisons of alternate models of changes of functional composition (i.e. PC1 and 842 PC2) based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) to test the support for (a) 843 interactions, and (b) main effects. The full models include the effects of water 844 availability, temperature anomaly, intense drought, tree density, mean d.b.h. and 845 functional diversity, and (a) all interactions tested, and (b) all interactions supported by 846 the best model in (a). The best fitting model is given in ΔAIC value of zero (bold), 847 comparing the full model with models dropping the effect of the predictor variables 848 849 considering the main effects and/or the interactions. Thus, the alternate models ignore 850 the effects ('No') of (a) interactions; and (b) main effects of the predictor variables and the interactions where the variable is involved. The AIC for the best models and the 851 pseudo R^2 for the best models are also shown. 852

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853 FIGURE LEGENDS

854

Figure 1. Map of forest types included in the analyses: broad-leaved deciduous, needleleaved evergreen, needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean and broad-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests. The pie-chart indicates the percentage of plots showing some change between the consecutive surveys in any of the five functional traits considered (i.e. leaf mass per area, wood density, seed mass, water potential loss or maximum tree height). The absolute values (i.e. positive vs. negative change) are shown for leaf mass per area.

862

Figure 2. Graphical representation of the effects of climate (i.e. abiotic factors, orange
box), stand development (i.e. biotic factors, green box) and demographic rates (blue
box) on changes in functional composition (represented by black arrows). See Figure S6
for a detailed description of acylic graph.

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Figure 3. First and second axis of a Principal Component Analysis showing National Forest Inventory plots (grey circles) and changes in functional composition for each functional trait (arrows), including: LMA (change in leaf mass per area, g m⁻²), WD (change in wood density, g cm⁻³), SM (change in seed mass, mg), P50 (change in water potential causing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity, MPa), and MTH (change in maximum tree height, m).

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Figure 4. Interactive effects of climatic and structural variables on the first axis of the PCA (PC1) in each forest type studied: (a) broad-leaved deciduous, (b) broad-leaved evergreen, (c) needle-leaved evergreen, and (d) needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests. Blue colour represents positive values in the PC1 indicating changes towards
higher proportion of angiosperm (i.e. lower LMA and higher WD, SM and P50), while
red colour represents higher proportions of gymnosperms (i.e. lower WD, SM and P50
and higher LMA. Convex hull lines covering the presence of data points in each panel
are represented using black lines and density plots are shown in Fig. S9.

Climatic and structural variables include: water availability (WAI, %), temperature
anomaly (TA, C), drought intensity (Drought, more negative values mean more intense
droughts, adimensional), tree density (Density, No. trees/ha), mean tree size (Size, mm)
and functional diversity (Diversity, adimensional).

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Figure 5. Interactive effects between climatic and structural variables on the second axis of the PCA (PC2) in each forest type studied: (a) broad-leaved deciduous, (b) broad-leaved evergreen, (c) needle-leaved evergreen, and (d) needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests. Green colour represents positive values in the PC2 indicating changes towards higher maximum tree heights, while brown colour represents the opposite. Convex hull lines covering the presence of data points in each panel are represented using black lines sand density plots are shown in Fig. S9.

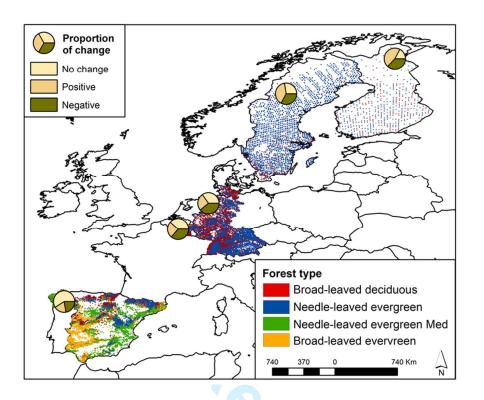
Climatic and structural variables include: water availability (WAI, %), temperature
anomaly (TA, C), drought intensity (Drought, more negative values mean more intense
droughts, adimensional), tree density (Density, No. trees/ha), mean tree size (Size, mm)
and functional diversity (Diversity, adimensional).

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Figure 6. Piecewise structural equation models exploring the direct effects of mortality
and growth on changes in functional composition (i.e. PC1 and PC2). Black boxes
represent measured variables and grey rectangles categories. Lines indicate the

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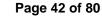
supported causal relationships (i.e. $P \ge 0.05$ of the estimated parameter in Table S5). The estimated coefficient for the effects of mortality and growth is provided next to the arrow. The thickness of the significant paths has been scaled based on the magnitude of the standardised regression coefficient. The conditional R² (i.e. based on the variance of both the fixed and random effects) is provided in in the boxes of response variables.

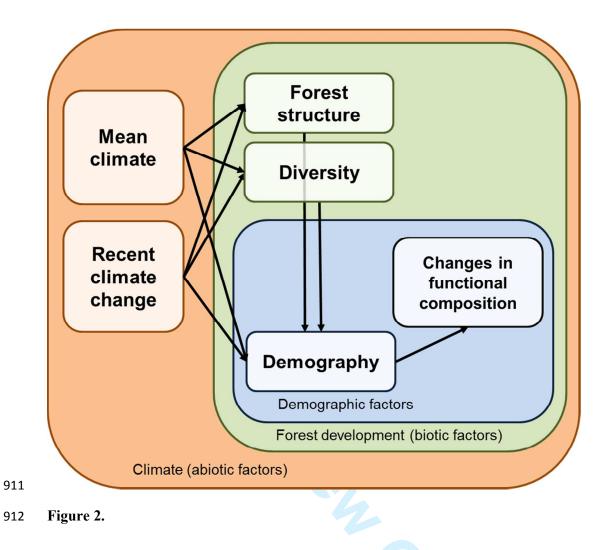


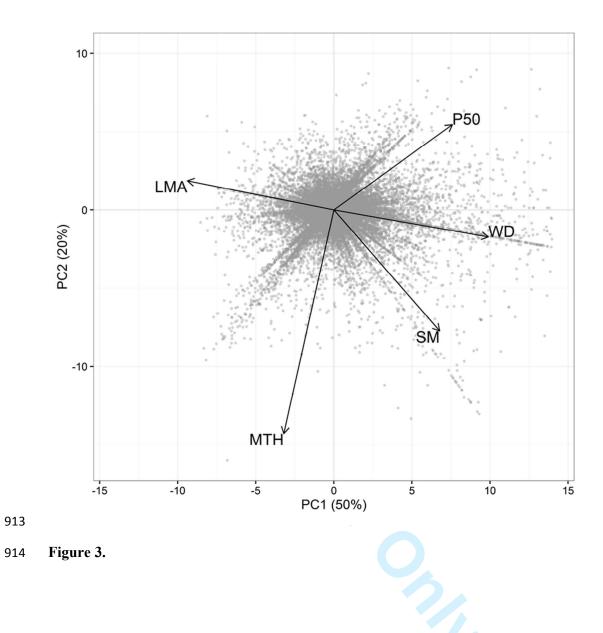
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909 **Figure 1.**

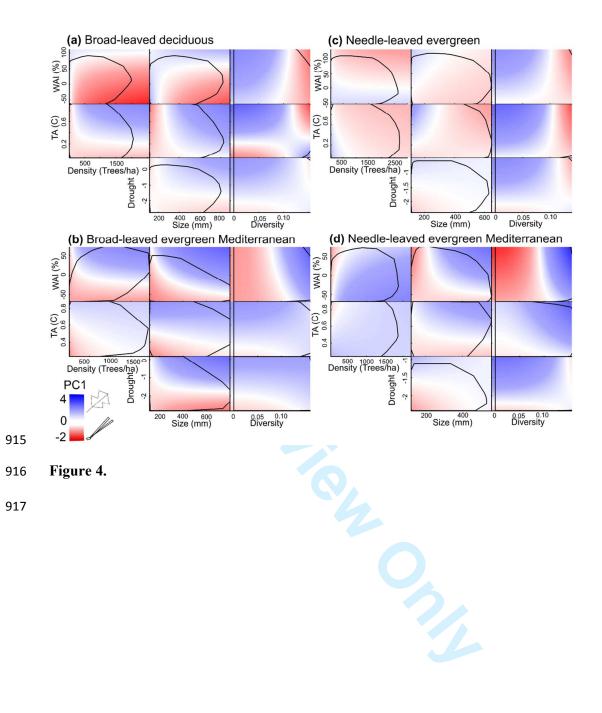
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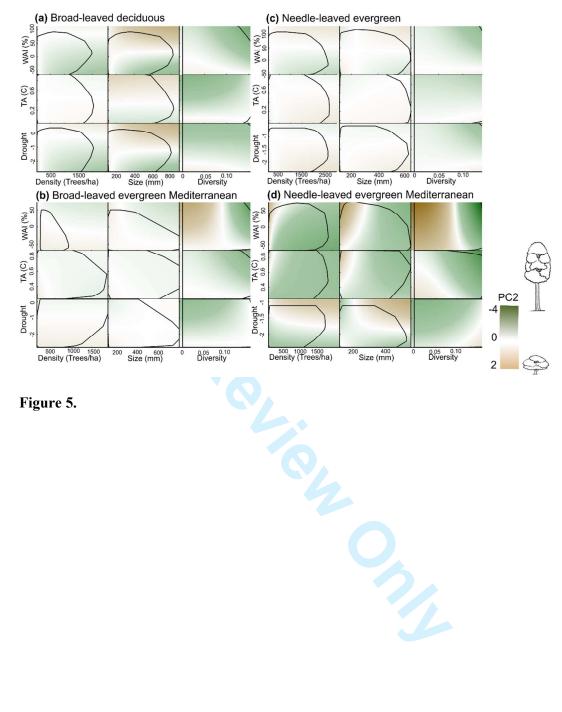
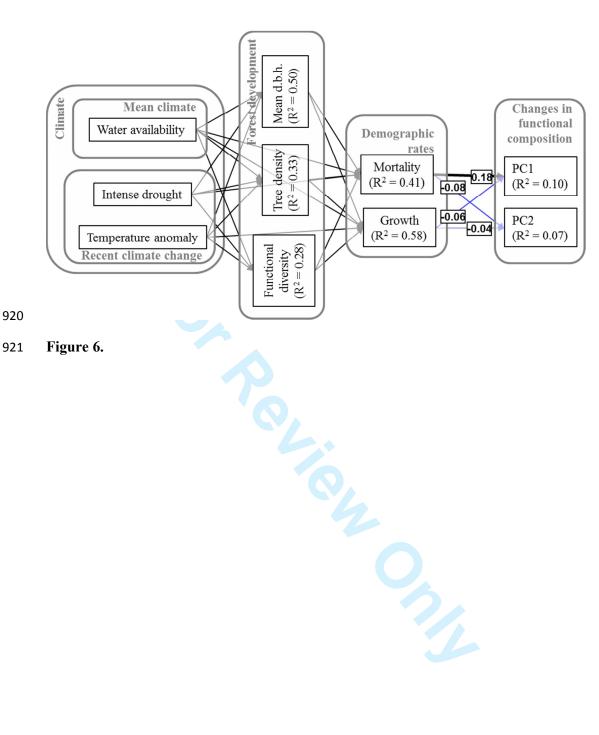




Figure 5. 919



FOR ONLINE PUBLICATION ONLY

Ruiz-Benito P, Ratcliffe S, Zavala MA, Martínez-Vilalta J, Vila-Cabrera A, Lloret F, Madrigal-González J, Wirth C, Greenwood S, Kändler G, Lehtonen A, Kattge J, Dahlgren J, Jump AS. *Tree mortality drives recent changes in functional composition across European forests*. Global Change Biology

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Appendix S1 Further details of the individual National Forest Inventories.

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Fig. S10 Interactive effects of climatic and structural variables on the PC1, with colours relative to each forest type.

Fig. S11 Maximum tree height for main species in each forest type.

Appendix S1. Further details regarding the National Forest Inventories used

Spanish National Forest Inventory: We used information from the second and third Spanish NFI (surveyed in the periods 1986-1996 and 1997-2007, respectively). The Spanish NFI plots are located on a 1 km² grid aver forested regions (Villaescusa & Díaz 1998; Villanueva 2004). Spanish NFI plots were sampled using a variable radius technique with four concentric circular subplots of radius 5, 10, 15 and 25 m. Within each subplot, trees were included in the sample according to their diameter at breast height (d.b.h.), with trees smaller than 12.4 cm measured in the 5 m radius subplot, those of 12.5-22.4 cm in the 10 m radius subplot, those of 22.5-42.4 cm in the 15 m radius subplot, and those with d.b.h. larger or equal to 42.5 cm in the 25 m radius subplot.

German National Forest Inventory: We used information from the first and second German NFI. The German NFI uses a systematic grid of clusters, sampled in the periods 1986-1990 (undertaken in West Germany only) and 2001-2002 respectively. The size of the sample grid is 4 by 4 km, however, it is reduced in some federal states to either 2.83 by 2.83 km or 2 by 2 km. Each cluster is a quadrangle of 150 m in length with a sample plot on each corner (Kändler 2009). Trees with a d.b.h. of 10 cm or more in the first inventory and 7 cm in the second were selected by the angle-count method with a basal area factor (BAF) of 4 m² ha⁻¹ if they are alive or recently dead.

Wallonia National Forest Inventory (Belgium): The Wallonia NFI follows a systematic non-stratified sampling methodology on a 1 km by 0.5 km grid. One circular sampling plot is located within each grid intersection. Areas are sampled if the area of land is greater than 0.1 ha and has at least 10% covered by a forest canopy (trees must be able to reach a minimum of

5 m). Plots in the first census were surveyed between 1994 and 2003 and plots in the second census were surveyed between 2008 and 2011. The inventory employs a variable plot size depending on the circumference of the tree: trees from 70 to 119 mm in 9 m radius; and greater than 120 cm in 18 m radius.

Sweden National Forest Inventory: The permanent inventory uses a randomly planned regular sampling grid and includes about 4,500 permanent tracts, each surveyed every five years. Plots in the first census were surveyed between 2003 and 2005 and plots in the second census were surveyed between 2008 and 2010. The tracts are rectangular and have different dimensions depending on the location within the country. Each tract has between 4 and 8 circular sample plots. Trees greater than 10 cm d.b.h. are sampled in a 10 m radius.

Finnish National Forest Inventory: We used information from the two consecutives surves of NFI8 sampled in the period 1985-1986 to 1995. The sample plots are in a systematic grid across the country of plot clusters in forested areas (Mäkipää & Heikkinen 2003). In Southern Finland the grid is 16 by 16 square km, with four plots in each cluster at 400 m. intervals, while in Northern Finland the grid is a 24 by 32 km rectangle with three plots per cluster, at 600 m. intervals. These permanent sample plot data were sampled using a variable radius technique with two concentric circular subplots of radius 5.64 m for trees under 10.5 cm of d.b.h. (i.e. 100 m²) and 9.77 m for trees of d.b.h. 10.5 cm or higher (i.e. 300 m²).

	Spain	Germany	Wallonia (Belgium)	Sweden	Finland
Survey dates	1986/96, 1997/2007	1986/90, 2001/02	1994/2003, 2008/11	2005/10, 2008/10	1985/86, 1995
Sample plot design	Single sample plots 1 by 1 km grid	Cluster design 4 by 4 km grid (vary) 4 plots in a cluster	Single sample plots 1 by 0.5 km grid	Cluster design Vary	Cluster design 16 by 16 km grid (vary) 10, 11, 14 plots in a cluster.
Sample tree survey design	Variable radius	Angle-count	Variable radius	Variable radius	Variable radius
Plot size (m^2)	79, 315, 707, 1964	$BAF = 4 m^2 ha^{-1}$	63, 254, 1017	38, 314	100, 300
Minimu m tree d.b.h. (cm)	7.5	10, 7	6.4	4	1

Table 1. Main characteristics of the plot and sampling design of the National Forest Inventories

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Villanueva, J.A. (2004). *Tercer Inventario Forestal Nacional (1997-2007). Comunidad de Madrid*. Ministerio de Medio Ambiente, Madrid.

Table S1. List of species names, genus and family and forest type.

We followed the nomenclature of *Atlas Florae Europaea*. The forest types are based on the leaf type (i.e. BL: broad-leaved, NL: needle-leaved, DEC: deciduous, EVE: evergreen) and Mediterranean character (i.e. med).

Name	Genus	Family	Forest type
Abies alba Mill.	Abies	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Abies grandis (D.Don) Lindl.	Abies	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Abies pinsapo Boiss.	Abies	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Abies procera Rehder	Abies	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Abies spp.	Abies	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Acacia dealbata</i> Link	Acacia	Leguminosae	BL-EVE
Acacia melanoxylon R.Br.	Acacia	Leguminosae	BL-EVE
Acacia spp.	Acacia	Leguminosae	BL-EVE
Acer campestre L.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Acer monspessulanum L.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Acer negundo L.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Acer opalus Mill.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Acer platanoides L.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Acer pseudoplatanus L.	Acer	Aceraceae	BL-DEC
Aesculus hippocastanum L.	Aesculus	Hippocastanaceae	BL-DEC
Alnus glutinosa (L.) Gaertn.	Alnus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Alnus incana (L.) Moench	Alnus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Alnus spp.	Alnus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Alnus viridis (Chaix) DC.	Alnus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Arbutus canariensis Veill.	Arbutus	Ericaceae	BL-EVE
Arbutus unedo L.	Arbutus	Ericaceae	BL-EVE
Betula pendula Roth	Betula	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Betula pubescens Ehrh.	Betula	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Betula</i> spp.	Betula	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Carpinus betulus</i> L.	Carpinus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Castanea sativa Mill.	Castanea	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Cedrus atlantica (Endl.) Carrière	Cedrus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Cedrus deodara (D.Don) G.Don	Cedrus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Cedrus libani A.Rich.	Cedrus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Celtis australis</i> L.	Celtis	Ulmaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i> L.	Ceratonia	Leguminosae	BL-EVE
<i>Chamaecyparis lawsoniana</i> (A.Murray bis) Parl.	Chamaecyparis	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Corylus avellana</i> L.	Corylus	Betulaceae	BL-DEC
Crataegus monogyna Jacq.	Crataegus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Crataegus spp.	Crataegus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Cupressus arizonica Greene	Cupressus	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
Cupressus lusitanica Mill.	Cupressus	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
Cupressus macrocarpa Hartw.	Cupressus	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
Cupressus sempervirens L.	Cupressus	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Erica arborea</i> L.	Erica	Ericaceae	NL-EVE
Eucalyptus camaldulensis Dehnh.	Eucalyptus	Myrtaceae	BL-EVE

GenusEucalyptusEucalyptusEucalyptusEucalyptusFagusFicusFrangulaFraxinusFraxinusFraxinusItexJuglansJuniperusJuniperusJuniperusJuniperusJuniperusJuniperusJuniperusJuniperus	FamilyMyrtaceaeMyrtaceaeMyrtaceaeMyrtaceaeMyrtaceaeRagaceaeMoraceaeRhamnaceaeOleaceaeOleaceaeOleaceaeOleaceaeOleaceaeJuglandaceaeCupressaceaeCupressaceaeCupressaceaeCupressaceaeCupressaceaeCupressaceae	Forest type BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE NL-EVE
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Fraxinus Fraxinus Fraxinus Fraxinus Ilex Ilex Juglans Juniperus Juniperus Juniperus	Oleaceae Oleaceae Oleaceae Aquifoliaceae Aquifoliaceae Juglandaceae Cupressaceae	BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-DEC NL-EVE
Fraxinus Fraxinus Fraxinus Ilex Ilex Juglans Juniperus Juniperus Juniperus	Oleaceae Oleaceae Oleaceae Aquifoliaceae Aquifoliaceae Juglandaceae Cupressaceae Cupressaceae	BL-DEC BL-DEC BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-DEC NL-EVE
Fraxinus Fraxinus Ilex Ilex Juglans Juniperus Juniperus Juniperus	Oleaceae Oleaceae Aquifoliaceae Aquifoliaceae Juglandaceae Cupressaceae Cupressaceae	BL-DEC BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-DEC NL-EVE NL-EVE
Fraxinus Ilex Ilex Juglans Juniperus Juniperus Juniperus	Oleaceae Aquifoliaceae Aquifoliaceae Juglandaceae Cupressaceae Cupressaceae	BL-DEC BL-EVE BL-EVE BL-DEC NL-EVE NL-EVE
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7 .	-	NL-EVE
		NL-EVE
Larix	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Larix	Pinaceae	NL-DEC
		NL-EVE
Laurus	Lauraceae	NL-EVE
Laurus	Lauraceae	BL-EVE
Malus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Morus	Moraceae	BL-DEC
Myrica	Myricaceae	BL-EVE
Olea	Oleaceae	BL-EVE
Persea	Lauraceae	BL-EVE
Phillyrea	Oleaceae	BL-EVE
Phoenix	Arecaceae	BL-EVE
Picconia	Oleaceae	BL-EVE
Picea	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
		NL-EVE
		NL-EVE
		NL-EVE _{med}
		NL-EVE
		NL-EVE
		NL-EVE
		NL-EVE _{med}
	Juniperus Juniperus Larix Larix Larix Laurus Laurus Laurus Malus Morus Myrica Olea Persea Phillyrea Phoenix Picconia Picea Picea Picea Picea	JuniperusCupressaceaeJuniperusCupressaceaeJuniperusCupressaceaeLarixPinaceaeLarixPinaceaeLarixPinaceaeLaurusLauraceaeLaurusLauraceaeMalusRosaceaeMorusMoraceaeMyricaOleaceaePerseaLauraceaePhoenixArecaceaePicconiaOleaceaePiceaPinaceaePiceaPinaceaePiceaPinaceaePiceaPinaceaePiceaPinaceaePiceaPinaceaePinusPinaceae <trtr>PinusPinaceae</trtr>

Name	Genus	Family	Forest type
Pinus ponderosa Douglas ex P.Lawson & C.Lawson	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Pinus radiata D.Don	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Pinus spp.	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Pinus strobus L.	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i> L.	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Pinus uncinata Mill. ex Mirb.	Pinus	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Pistacia terebinthus</i> L.	Pistacia	Anacardiaceae	BL-DEC
Platanus hispanica Ten.	Platanus	Platanaceae	BL-DEC
Populus alba L.	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Populus balsamifera Brayshaw	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Populus nigra L.	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Populus spp.	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Populus tremula L.	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Populus x canadensis Moench	Populus	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Prunus avium L.	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Prunus lusitanica L.	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Prunus padus L.	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Prunus serotina Ehrh.	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC BL-DEC
Prunus spinosa L.	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC BL-DEC
_	Prunus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC BL-DEC
Prunus spp.		Pinaceae	NL-EVE
Pseudotsuga menziesii (Mirb.) Franco	Pseudotsuga Pseudotsuga		BL-DEC
<i>Pyrus</i> spp.	Pyrus	Rosaceae	
<i>Quercus canariensis</i> Willd.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Quercus faginea</i> Lam.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus ilex L.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-EVE _{med}
Quercus palustris Münchh.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Quercus petraea</i> (Matt.) Liebl. <i>Quercus pubescens</i> Willd. (Q.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Humilis)	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus pyrenaica Willd.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus robur L.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus rubra L.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus spp.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-DEC
Quercus suber L.	Quercus	Fagaceae	BL-EVE _{med}
<i>Rhamnus alaternus</i> L.	Rhamnus	Rhamnaceae	BL-EVE
<i>Robinia pseudacacia</i> L.	Robinia	Leguminosae	BL-DEC
Salix alba L.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Salix atrocinerea Brot.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Salix caprea L.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Salix elaeagnos Scop.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Salix fragilis L.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Salix spp.	Salix	Salicaceae	BL-DEC
Sambucus nigra L.	Sambucus	Caprifoliaceae	BL-DEC
Sorbus aria (L.) Crantz	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Sorbus aucuparia L.	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC

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Name	Genus	Family	Forest type
Sorbus domestica L.	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Sorbus intermedia (Ehrh.) Pers.	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Sorbus spp.	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
Sorbus torminalis (L.) Crantz	Sorbus	Rosaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Tamarix</i> spp.	Tamarix	Tamaricaceae	NL-EVE
Taxus baccata L.	Taxus	Taxaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Thuja</i> spp.	Thuja	Cupressaceae	NL-EVE
Tilia cordata Mill.	Tilia	Tiliaceae	BL-DEC
Tilia platyphyllos Scop.	Tilia	Tiliaceae	BL-DEC
<i>Tilia</i> spp.	Tilia	Tiliaceae	BL-DEC
Tsuga spp.	Tsuga	Pinaceae	NL-EVE
<i>Ulmus glabra</i> Huds.	Ulmus	Ulmaceae	BL-DEC
Ulmus minor Mill.	Ulmus	Ulmaceae	BL-DEC
Ulmus spp.	Ulmus	Ulmaceae	BL-DEC

Unn.. Ulmus

Table S2. Functional traits used to compute trait-based diversity indices. Trait type, transformation (when applicable), number of missing data for the 143 species initially considered (i.e. data not available, No. NA) and the sources and references used are given.

Trait	Unit	No. NA	Transformation	Sources and references
Leaf mass per area	g m ²	1	<i>~</i> 0,	(Cornelissen 1996; Cornelissen <i>et al.</i> 1996; Cornelissen <i>et al.</i> 1997; Atkin <i>et al.</i> 1999; McKenna & Shipley 1999; Medlyn <i>et al.</i> 1999; Medlyn & Jarvis 1999; Meziane & Shipley 1999; Niinemets 1999; Fonseca <i>et al.</i> 2000; Medlyn <i>et al.</i> 2001; Niinemets 2001; Shipley 2002; Shipley & Vu 2002; Cornelissen <i>et al.</i> 2003; Loveys <i>et al.</i> 2003; McDonald <i>et al.</i> 2003; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2003; Poschlod <i>et al.</i> 2003; Quested <i>et al.</i> 2003; Sack <i>et al.</i> 2003; Cornelissen <i>et al.</i> 2004; Mright <i>et al.</i> 2004; Wright <i>et al.</i> 2003; Corneder-Bares <i>et al.</i> 2006; Cornwell <i>et al.</i> 2006; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2006; Preston <i>et al.</i> 2006; Sack <i>et al.</i> 2006; Wright <i>et al.</i> 2006; Ackerly & Cornwell 2007; Campbell <i>et al.</i> 2007; Garnier <i>et al.</i> 2007; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2007; Coomes <i>et al.</i> 2008; Cornwell <i>et al.</i> 2008; Night <i>et al.</i> 2008; Pakeman <i>et al.</i> 2008; Quero <i>et al.</i> 2008; Reich & Oleksyn 2008; Sardans <i>et al.</i> 2008; Sardans <i>et al.</i> 2009; Reich <i>et al.</i> 2009; Freschet <i>et al.</i> 2009; Fortunel <i>et al.</i> 2009; Kattge <i>et al.</i> 2009; Pakeman <i>et al.</i> 2009; Willis <i>et al.</i> 2010; Onoda <i>et al.</i> 2010; Ordonez <i>et al.</i> 2010a; Ordonez <i>et al.</i> 2010b; Willis <i>et al.</i> 2010; Onoda <i>et al.</i> 2011)
Seed mass	mg	4	Natural log	(Cornelissen 1996; Otto 2002; Díaz <i>et al.</i> 2004; Kühn <i>et al.</i> 2004; Moles <i>et al.</i> 2004; Sack 2004; Moles <i>et al.</i> 2005a; Moles <i>et al.</i> 2005b; Cornwell <i>et al.</i> 2006; Preston <i>et al.</i> 2006; Ackerly & Cornwell 2007; Garnier <i>et al.</i> 2007; Kew 2008; Kleyer <i>et al.</i> 2008; Pakeman <i>et al.</i> 2008; Paula & Pausas 2008; Quero <i>et al.</i> 2008a; Cornwell & Ackerly 2009; Fortunel <i>et al.</i> 2009; Green 2009; Pakeman <i>et al.</i> 2009; Paula <i>et al.</i> 2009; Laughlin <i>et al.</i> 2010)
Wood density	g cm-3	2		(Castro-Díez et al. 1998; Cornelissen <i>et al.</i> 2003; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2003; Cornwell <i>et al.</i> 2006; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2006; Preston <i>et al.</i> 2006; Ackerly & Cornwell 2007; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2007; Kleyer <i>et al.</i> 2008; Ogaya & Peñuelas 2008; Sardans <i>et al.</i> 2008a; Sardans <i>et al.</i> 2008b; Chave <i>et al.</i> 2009; Cornwell & Ackerly 2009; Reich <i>et al.</i> 2009; Zanne <i>et al.</i> 2009; Ordonez <i>et al.</i> 2010a; Ordonez <i>et al.</i> 2010b)
Maximum tree height	m	0		Tree height was calculated as the 99.99 % percentile of the distribution of tree heights measured for each species from the first census of each National Forest Inventory (see Appendix S1).
Water potential causing 50% of hydraulic loss	Мра	8		(Choat <i>et al.</i> 2012)

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Table S3. Estimated parameters and standard errors for the best models predicting changes in multidimensional functional space ((A) first axis of PCA, and (B) second axis of PCA)) for forest type, including: broad-leaved-deciduous (BLDEC), needle-leaved evergreen (NLEVE), broad-leaved evergreen (BLEVEm), and Mediterranean needle-leaved evergreen (NLEVEm).

		(A) PC1 (Eq. (1))*							
Variables	Par. Eq. 1	BLDEC	NLEVE	BLEVEm	NLEVEm				
WAI	Q	-0.1975	-0.0661	0.3254	0.3482				
WAI	β_1	(0.0202)	(0.0117)	(0.0558)	(0.0375)				
ТА	0	0.2241	-0.1195	0.0924	0.1218				
IA	β_2	(0.0185)	(0.0119)	(0.1079)	(0.0547)				
ID	β ₃	0.0331	0.0164	0.0755	0.0306				
ID	P3	(0.0182)	(0.0131)	(0.0394)	(0.0369)				
TD	β4	0.0811	-0.0724	0.1705	-0.1354				
ID	P4	(0.0195)	(0.0134)	(0.0544)	(0.0421)				
DBH	β5	0.0582	0.085	0.3095	0.1349				
DDII	P5	(0.0175)	(0.0135)	(0.0509)	(0.0544)				
FD	ß	0.0796	0.1197	0.121	0.1328				
ГD	β_6	(0.0124)	(0.0104)	(0.0235)	(0.0237)				
WAI × TD	ß_	0.0905	-0.0275	0.1061	-0.0252				
WAI×ID	β_7	(0.0245)	(0.0139)	(0.0522)	(0.0332)				
$TA \times TD$	β ₈	0.0911	0.0094	-0.0536	0.0644				
	P8	(0.02)	(0.012)	(0.0702)	(0.0411)				
WAI × DBH	β9	0.0958	-0.0115	0.0834	0.1964				
WAI ^ DDII	P9	(0.0231)	(0.0137)	(0.0559)	(0.0416)				
$TA \times DBH$	ρ	0.0847	-0.0753	-0.0622	0.0884				
	β_{10}	(0.0181)	(0.0118)	(0.0703)	(0.0492)				
$\text{ID} \times \text{DBH}$	β_{11}	0.0483	-0.0215	0.1155	-0.0655				
	μI	(0.0141)	(0.0117)	(0.0235)	(0.0338)				
WAI × FD	ß.	-0.0523	-0.0745	0.0766	0.19				
WAIATD	β_{12}	(0.0157)	(0.0121)	(0.0271)	(0.0188)				
$TA \times FD$	β ₁₃	-0.1902	-0.1277	-0.0539	0.0951				
$IA \wedge ID$	P13	(0.0134)	(0.0095)	(0.0388)	(0.0337)				
$ID \times FD$	β_{14}	-0.0442	-0.0774	-0.0178	-0.0851				
$ID \times ID$	P14	(0.0118)	(0.0103)	(0.0184)	(0.0216)				
$WAI \times ID$	β ₁₅	-0.0788	0.0019	0.181	0.1059				
WAI ^ ID	P15	(0.0241)	(0.0136)	(0.0503)	(0.0412)				
$WAI \times TA$	ß.	0.1761	0.0372	-0.0031	-0.0584				
	β_{16}	(0.0241)	(0.0135)	(0.0883)	(0.0495)				
$TA \times ID$	ß. –	0.1519	0.0227	0.1619	-0.0152				
	β_{17}	(0.0192)	(0.011)	(0.0543)	(0.043)				

 $PC1 = \frac{\beta_1(WAI) + \beta_2(TA) + \beta_3(ID) + \beta_4(TD) + (\beta_5(DBH) + \beta_6(FD) + \beta_7(WAI)(TD) + \beta_8(TA)(TD) + \beta_9(WAI)(DBH) + \beta_{10}(TA)(DBH) + \beta_{11}(ID)(DBH) + \beta_{12}(WAI)(FD) + \beta_{13}(TA)(FD) + \beta_{14}(ID)(FD) + \beta_{15}(WAI)(TA) + \beta_{16}(TA)(ID) + \beta_{17}(WAI)(ID) + \beta_{17$

			(B) PC	2 (Eq (2))*	
Variables	Par. Eq. 2	BLDEC	NLEVE	BLEVE	NLEVEm
WAT	0	-0.0525	-0.0026	-0.0618	-0.4988
WAI	β_1	(0.0128)	(0.0075)	(0.0356)	(0.0239)
Τ.	0	-0.0069	0.017	-0.0368	-0.3408
ТА	β_2	(0.0117)	(0.0075)	(0.0686)	(0.0347)
ID	0	-0.0298	0.0141	-0.0003	0.1145
ID	β_3	(0.0116)	(0.0084)	(0.0256)	(0.0238)
TD	0	0.0021	0.0107	-0.0517	0.2035
TD	β_4	(0.0124)	(0.0086)	(0.0346)	(0.0272)
ווחח	0	0.127	-0.0301	-0.0211	0.1518
DBH	β_5	(0.0111)	(0.0086)	(0.0325)	(0.0346)
	0	-0.1511	-0.0965	-0.0817	-0.1399
FD	β ₆	(0.0079)	(0.0066)	(0.015)	(0.015)
	0	0.045	0.0326	-0.0131	0.0115
WAI × TD	β ₇	(0.0158)	(0.0093)	(0.0339)	(0.0214)
	0	-0.0146	-0.0259	0.0326	-0.1003
$TA \times TD$	β_8	(0.0132)	(0.0077)	(0.0463)	(0.0276)
	β9	0.0508	-0.0287	0.0017	0.0309
$ID \times TD$		(0.0131)	(0.0093)	(0.0224)	(0.0228)
WAI×	0	0.088	0.0432	-0.0309	-0.1657
DBH	β_{10}	(0.0147)	(0.0088)	(0.0361)	(0.0265)
	0	-0.0029	0.0029	0.0079	-0.1556
$TA \times DBH$	β_{11}	(0.0117)	(0.0075)	(0.0459)	(0.032)
	0	0.074	-0.0122	0.0189	0.154
$ID \times DBH$	β_{12}	(0.0118)	(0.0086)	(0.0222)	(0.0263)
	0	-0.0538	-0.0419	-0.1569	-0.2327
WAI × FD	β_{13}	(0.01)	(0.0077)	(0.0172)	(0.012)
	0	0.0439	-0.0138	-0.059	-0.0929
$TA \times FD$	β_{14}	(0.0085)	(0.006)	(0.0247)	(0.0214)
	0	0.0081	-0.0332	0.0389	0.0222
$ID \times FD$	β_{15}	(0.0075)	(0.0065)	(0.0117)	(0.0138)
	0	-0.0025	0.0083	-0.0066	-0.1075
$WAI \times ID$	β_{16}	(0.0154)	(0.0087)	(0.033)	(0.0269)
	0	-0.0415	-0.0188	-0.0426	0.0332
WAI × TA	β_{17}	(0.0153)	(0.0086)	(0.0572)	(0.0315)
	0	0.0008	-0.0035	0.0067	-0.1552
$TA \times ID$	β_{18}	(0.0123)	(0.0072)	(0.0347)	(0.0274)

 $PC2 = \underline{\beta_1}(WAI) + \underline{\beta_2}(TA) + \underline{\beta_3}(ID) + \underline{\beta_4}(TD) + \underline{\beta_5}(DBH) + \underline{\beta_6}(FD) + \underline{\beta_7}(WAI)(TD) + \underline{\beta_8}(TA)(TD) + \underline{\beta_9}(ID)(TD) + \underline{\beta_{10}}(WAI)(DBH) + \underline{\beta_{11}}(TA)(DBH) + \underline{\beta_{12}}(ID)(DBH) + \underline{\beta_{13}}(WAI)(FD) + \underline{\beta_{14}}(TA)(FD) + \underline{\beta_{15}}(ID)(FD) + \underline{\beta_{16}}(WAI)(TA) + \underline{\beta_{16}}(WAI)(TA$

 $\underline{\beta_{17}}$ (WAI)(ID) + $\underline{\beta_{18}}$ (TA)(ID)

Eq. (2)*

Table S4. Conditional independence test applied via d-sep method, for all forest types together and each forest type separately. {Var1, Var2}|{Vark} means that variables 1 and 2 are and independent conditional claim (i.e. Var1 does not imply a variation in Var2 if Vark is held constant). The p-value is obtained by comparing the value of the C statistic for each hypothesis to a chi-square distribution with the same degrees of freedom (a hypothesis is rejected if the C statistic is statistically different from the χ^2 value).

Claim	d-sep claim of independence	Model	но		P value				
No.	u-sep claim of independence	Model	110	All forests	BLDEC	NLEVE	NLEVEm	BLEVEm	
C1	{STD,DBH} {WAI, TA, ID}	DBH ~ TD + WAI + TA + ID	TD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
C2	{STD,FD} {WAI, TA, ID}	$TD \sim FD + WAI + TA + ID$	FD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0145	0.0842	0.0000	
C3	{FD,DBH} {WAI, TA, ID}	$DBH \sim FD + WAI + TA + ID$	FD = 0	0.0003	0.0720	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
C4	$\{M,G\} \{WAI, TA, ID, TD, DBH, FD\}$	$\mathbf{G} \sim \mathbf{M} + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{T}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{I}\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{T}\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{H} + \mathbf{F}\mathbf{D}$	M = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0006	
C5	{PCA1,PCA2} {M,G}	$PCA1 \sim PCA2 + M + G$	PCA = 0	0.0039	0.0061	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
C6	$\{PCA1,WAI\} $ $\{G, M\}$	PCA1 ~ WAI + M + G	WAI = 0	0.6911	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
C7	{PCA1,TA} {G, M}	$PCA1 \sim TA + M + G$	TA = 0	0.6763	0.2403	0.5161	0.0000	0.6136	
C8	{PCA1,ID} {G, M}	$PCA1 \sim ID + M + G$	ID = 0	0.3560	0.0463	0.2902	0.0000	0.1526	
С9	{PCA1,TD} {WAI, TA, ID, G, M}	$PCA1 \sim TD + WAI + TA + ID + M + G$	TD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.2866	
C10	{PCA1,DBH} {WAI, TA, ID, G, M}	PCA1 ~ DBH + WAI + TA + ID + M + G	DBH = 0	0.0006	0.0000	0.0000	0.8889	0.1551	
C11	{PCA1,FD} {WAI, TA, ID, G, M}	PCA1 ~ FD + WAI + TA + ID + M + G	FD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
C12	{PCA2,WAI} {G, M}	$PCA2 \sim WAI + M + G$	WAI = 0	0.0000	0.0997	0.0060	0.0000	0.0000	
C13	{PCA2,TA} {G, M}	$PCA2 \sim TA + M + G$	TA = 0	0.0006	0.9234	0.1303	0.0000	0.7192	
C14	{PCA2,ID} {G, M}	$PCA2 \sim ID + M + G$	ID = 0	0.7975	0.5052	0.1215	0.0000	0.3568	
C15	{PCA2,TD} {WAI, TA, ID, G, M}	$PCA2 \sim TD + WAI + TA + ID + M + G$	TD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.6716	
C16	{PCA2,DBH} {WAI, TA, ID, G, M}	$PCA2 \sim DBH + WAI + TA + ID + M + G$	DBH = 0	0.3820	0.2785	0.0001	0.0009	0.1924	
C17	$\{PCA2,FD\} \{WAI, TA, ID, G, M\}$	$PCA2 \sim FD + WAI + TA + ID + M + G$	FD = 0	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	
			C- statistic	2373.43	1392.19	1869.87	2726.21	1428.22	
			P value	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	
			AIC	2479.43	1498.19	1975.87	2804.21	1506.22	

The model was fitted for all forest types together and each forest type separately (i.e. BLDEC: broadleaved-deciduous; NLEVE: Needle-leaved evergreen; BLEVEm: Broadleaved evergreen Mediterranean; and NLEVEm: Needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean) including the random effect of cluster identity nested in plot when applicable. C is the Fisher C statistics, the p-value and the AIC of the model.

Meu. un applicable. C is

Table S5. Standardised regression coefficients of piecewise structural equation models fitted (see Fig S6). The parameter estimate (Est.),

standard errors (SE) and p-values (P) are also shown.

-		All fores	sts	BLDEC	C	NELEV	Е	NLEVEm		BLEVE	
Response	Predictor	Estimate (SE)	P-value	Estimate (SE)	P-value						
DBH	WAI	0.031 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.081 (0.013)	< 0.0001	0.084 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.176 (0.011)	< 0.0001	-0.558 (0.024)	< 0.0001
DBH	ТА	0.031 (0.006)	< 0.0001	-0.011 (0.015)	0.4518	0.083 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.243 (0.014)	< 0.0001	-0.487 (0.028)	< 0.0001
DBH	ID	-0.148 (0.005)	< 0.0001	-0.141 (0.011)	< 0.0001	-0.018 (0.006)	0.0052	-0.132 (0.011)	< 0.0001	-0.433 (0.014)	< 0.0001
TD	WAI	0.168 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.067 (0.012)	< 0.0001	-0.055 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.146 (0.012)	< 0.0001	0.859 (0.023)	< 0.0001
TD	ТА	0.031 (0.006)	< 0.0001	0.016 (0.014)	0.2497	0.02 (0.006)	0.0011	0.032 (0.016)	0.0409	0.379 (0.028)	< 0.0001
TD	ID	0.117 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.072 (0.01)	< 0.0001	0.001 (0.006)	0.8616	0.097 (0.012)	< 0.0001	0.384 (0.014)	< 0.0001
FD	WAI	0.081 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.113 (0.014)	< 0.0001	-0.038 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.311 (0.013)	< 0.0001	0.5 (0.026)	< 0.0001
FD	TA	-0.06 (0.006)	< 0.0001	-0.092 (0.016)	< 0.0001	-0.023 (0.007)	0.0015	0.033 (0.016)	0.048	0.173 (0.031)	< 0.0001
FD	ID	0.044 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.07 (0.011)	< 0.0001	0.009 (0.007)	0.1649	0.03 (0.013)	0.019	0.139 (0.015)	< 0.0001
G	TD	0.451 (0.004)	< 0.0001	0.316 (0.008)	< 0.0001	0.362 (0.006)	< 0.0001	0.493 (0.01)	< 0.0001	0.58 (0.018)	< 0.0001
G	DBH	-0.07 (0.004)	< 0.0001	-0.046 (0.008)	< 0.0001	0.129 (0.005)	< 0.0001	-0.005 (0.012)	0.6601	0.057 (0.018)	0.0012
G	FD	0.014 (0.003)	< 0.0001	0.048 (0.005)	< 0.0001	-0.13 (0.006)	< 0.0001	0.018 (0.007)	0.0149	0.076 (0.009)	< 0.0001
G	WAI	0.17 (0.004)	< 0.0001	0.086 (0.008)	< 0.0001	-0.016 (0.004)	0.0004	0.288 (0.01)	< 0.0001	0.395 (0.02)	< 0.0001
G	TA	0.035 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.021 (0.01)	0.0282	-0.02 (0.006)	0.0007	0.226 (0.012)	< 0.0001	-0.048 (0.022)	0.0301
G	ID	0.006 (0.004)	0.1286	-0.004 (0.007)	0.5091	-0.014 (0.005)	0.0056	0.045 (0.009)	< 0.0001	-0.012 (0.011)	0.2732
М	TD	0.54 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.439 (0.01)	< 0.0001	0.594 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.547 (0.012)	< 0.0001	0.353 (0.015)	< 0.0001
М	DBH	0.414 (0.005)	< 0.0001	0.355 (0.01)	< 0.0001	0.435 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.509 (0.014)	< 0.0001	0.337 (0.015)	< 0.0001
М	FD	0.006 (0.003)	0.0753	0.041 (0.007)	< 0.0001	0.042 (0.006)	< 0.0001	0.02 (0.009)	0.0226	0.049 (0.008)	< 0.0001
М	WAI	0.033 (0.004)	< 0.0001	0.002 (0.011)	0.8291	-0.017 (0.005)	0.0010	0.24 (0.012)	< 0.0001	0.141 (0.017)	< 0.0001
М	TA	-0.011 (0.005)	0.0368	-0.011 (0.012)	0.3744	-0.018 (0.006)	0.0025	0.038 (0.015)	0.0102	0.026 (0.019)	0.1581
М	ID	-0.026 (0.004)	< 0.0001	0.007 (0.009)	0.4578	-0.014 (0.007)	0.0289	-0.085 (0.011)	< 0.0001	0.004 (0.01)	0.6547
PCA1	G	-0.088 (0.004)	< 0.0001	-0.158 (0.014)	< 0.0001	-0.299 (0.012)	< 0.0001	-0.035 (0.015)	0.0186	-0.088 (0.014)	< 0.0001
PCA1	М	0.184 (0.004)	< 0.0001	0.208 (0.012)	< 0.0001	0.261 (0.011)	< 0.0001	0.336 (0.013)	< 0.0001	0.208 (0.023)	< 0.0001

		All forests		BLDEC		NELEVE		NLEVEm		BLEVE	
Response	Predictor	Estimate (SE)	P-value	Estimate (SE)	P-value	Estimate (SE)	P-value	Estimate (SE)	P-value	Estimate (SE)	P-value
PCA2	G	-0.043 (0.004)	< 0.0001	-0.085 (0.014)	< 0.0001	-0.026 (0.006)	< 0.0001	-0.076 (0.012)	< 0.0001	-0.046 (0.006)	< 0.0001
PCA2	М	-0.062 (0.004)	< 0.0001	-0.07 (0.011)	< 0.0001	-0.026 (0.006)	< 0.0001	-0.186 (0.011)	< 0.0001	-0.044 (0.01)	< 0.0001

The models were fitted for all forest types together and each forest type separately (i.e. BLDEC: broadleaved-deciduous; NLEVE: Needle-leaved evergreen, NLEVEm: Needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean; and BLEVEm: Broadleaved evergreen Mediterranean) including the random effect of cluster identity nested in plot when applicable. C is the Fisher C statistics, the p-value and the AIC of the model. If the p-value is lower than 0.05 it is marked in bold.

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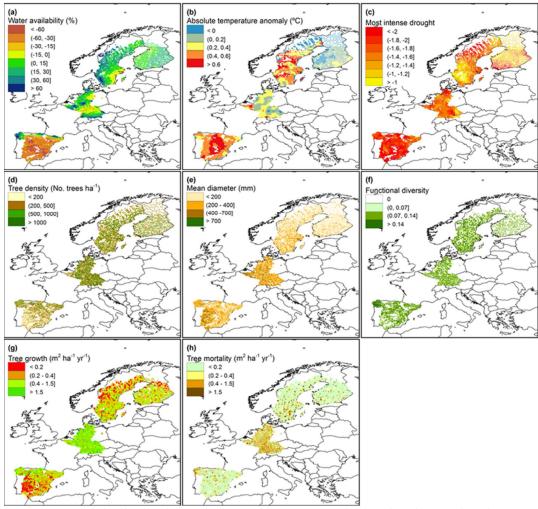


Fig. S1 Spatial distribution of the explanatory variables in the National Forest Inventories related to climate, stand development and tree demography: (a) water availability (%), (b) absolute temperature anomaly (°C), (c) most intense drought (adimensional), (d) tree density (No. trees ha⁻¹), (e) mean diameter (mm), (f) functional diversity (adimensional), (g) tree growth, and (h) tree mortality.

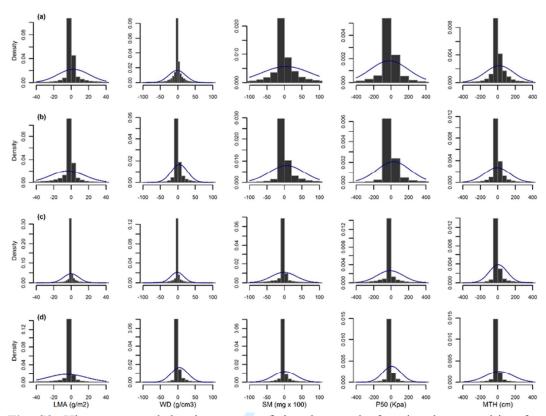


Fig. S2. Histograms and density curves of the changes in functional composition for each functional trait (LMA: leaf mass per area, WD: wood density, SM: seed mass, P50: water potential loss, and MTH: Maximum tree height) and each forest type (a) broad-leaved deciduous, (b) broad-leaved evergreen, (c) needle-leaved evergreen, and (d) needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests.

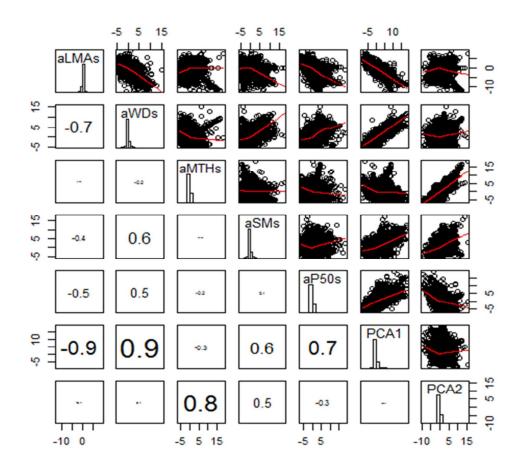


Fig. S3 Results of the Principal Component Analysis of the standardised changes in functional community weighted means, including scatterplots, histograms and correlations between the first two axis of the PCA and the standardised changes in functional identity for each functional trait.

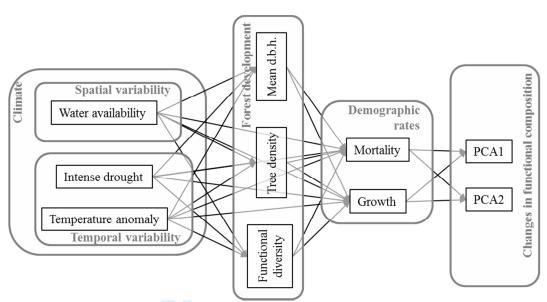


Fig. S4 Acyclic graph showing a schematic representation of variables included in the models testing the effects of climate and stand development through demographic rates on changes in functional composition. Variables in black rectangles represent latent variables while grey rectangles represent categories and subcategories. Lines indicate tested hypotheses and arrows hypothesised direction of causality. Note that if no line is shown the relationship was not tested. The same models were performed for all forest types together and each forest type separately.



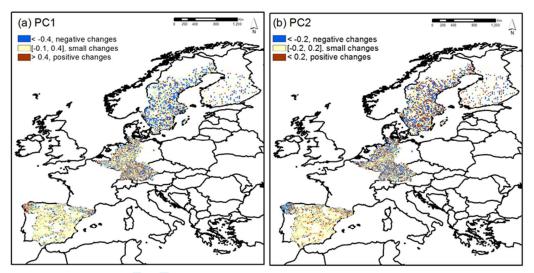


Fig S5. Map of the (a) first and (b) second axis of the Principal Component Analyses performed with the functional traits.

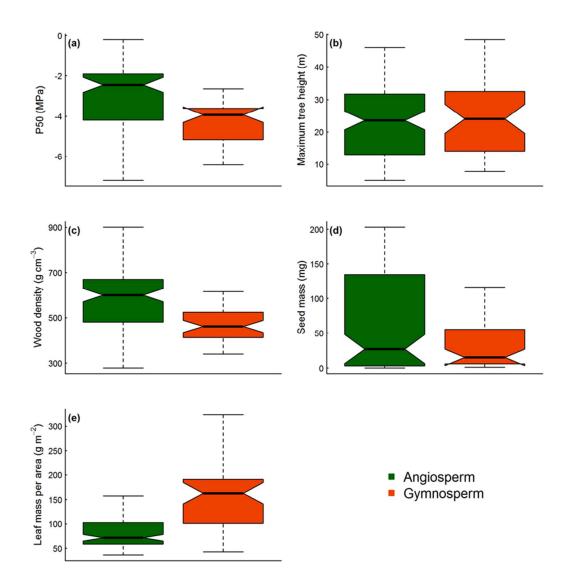


Fig. S6 Box-whisker plots of each of the functional traits for the species present in the European National Forest Inventories used for angiosperms and gymnosperms: (a) water potential causing 50% loss of hydraulic conductivity (P50, MPa), maximum tree height (MTH, m), wood density (WD, g cm⁻³), seed mass (SM, mg) and leaf mass per area (LMA, g m⁻²).

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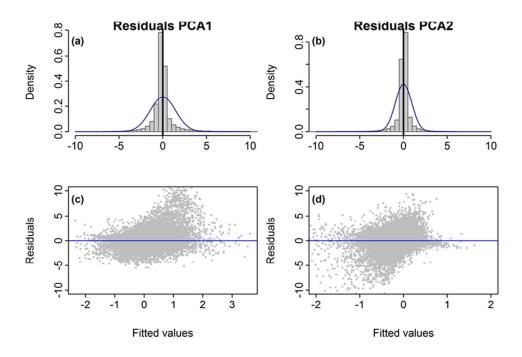


Fig. S7 Histogram of the residuals (a, b) and scatterplot of residuals versus predicted values (c,d) for the best models selected to predict the first and second PCA axis of the multidimensional change in trait space.

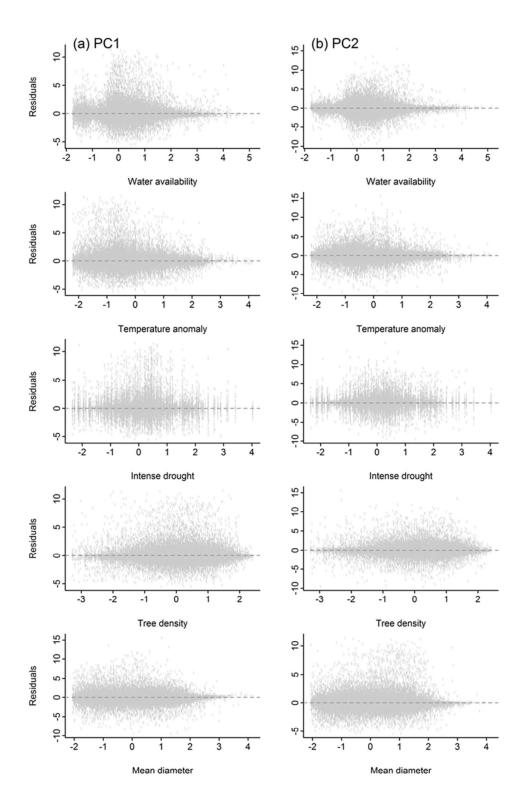


Fig. S8 Partial residual plots for models using as response variable (a) PC1 and (b) PC2.

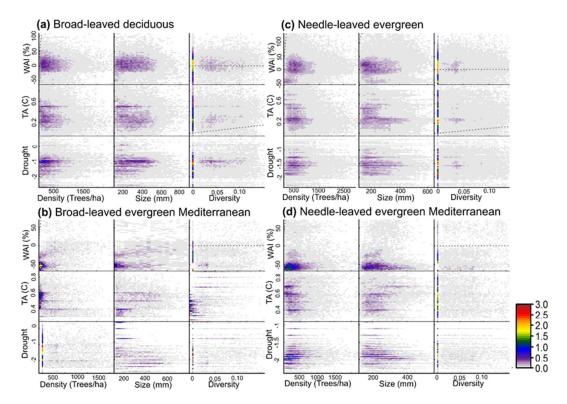


Fig. S9 Density plots of the NFI data along climatic and stand development variables in each forest type studied: (a) broad-leaved deciduous, (b) broad-leaved evergreen, (c) needle-leaved evergreen, and (d) needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests.

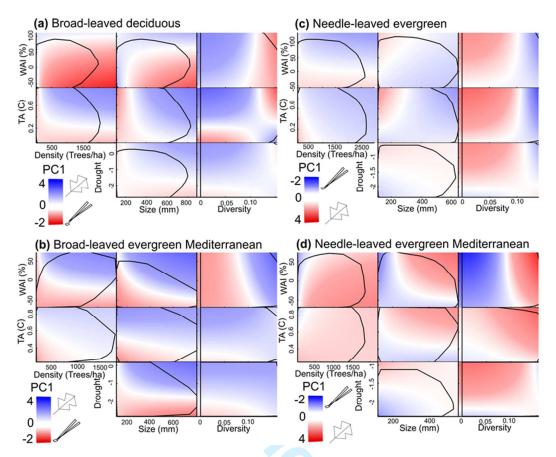


Fig S10 Interactive effects of climatic and structural variables on the first axis of the PCA (PC1) in each forest type studied: (a) broad-leaved deciduous, (b) broad-leaved evergreen, (c) needle-leaved evergreen, and (d) needle-leaved evergreen Mediterranean forests. Blue colour represents changes towards functional strategies similar to the dominant and red colour different than the dominant. Convex hull lines covering the presence of data points in each panel are represented using black lines and density plots are shown in Fig. S9.



Fig. S11 Maximum tree height (maximum and mean value) for main species in the functional groups of each forest type including Mediterranean needle-leaved species (i.e. *Pinus halepensis, P. pinea* and *P. pinaster*), Mediterranean broad-leaved evergreen species (i.e. *Quercus ilex* and *Q. suber*), Sub-Mediterranean broad-leaved deciduous species (i.e. *Quercus pyrenaica* and *Q. faginea*), temperate broad-leaved species (i.e. *Fagus sylvatica, Quercus robur, Q. petraea* and *Castanea sativa*) and other conifers (i.e. *Abies* sp., *Picea* sp. and *Pinus sylvestris*).

