

1 **Are pine-oak mixed stands in Mediterranean mountains more resilient**  
2 **to drought than their monospecific counterparts?**

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10 **Abstract**

11 Climate change projections point to an increase in the intensity and frequency of extreme  
12 drought events with important negative impacts on forest functioning. Predicting these  
13 impacts constitutes a crucial challenge for forest managers and for the maintenance of  
14 ecosystem services supply. Promoting mixed stands seems a promising strategy for  
15 adapting forest ecosystems to ongoing climate change. However, some uncertainty exists  
16 regarding whether mixed stands can improve growth resilience to extreme drought events.  
17 Here, we aim to assess tree growth response to drought in mixed and monospecific stands  
18 of *Pinus sylvestris* L. and *Quercus pyrenaica* Willd. in central Spain. We built tree-ring  
19 chronologies, and evaluated tree growth sensitivity to water availability and growth  
20 resilience components to extreme droughts using linear mixed models. We found  
21 contrasting species- and climate-specific responses to admixture. *Q. pyrenaica* growth  
22 was significantly higher in mixed than in monospecific stands in years without water  
23 limitations, while *P. sylvestris* showed higher growth in mixed stands under dry  
24 conditions. Consequently, *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pyrenaica* showed higher resistance and  
25 recovery to drought in mixed than monospecific stands, respectively. However, *Q.*  
26 *pyrenaica* was more resistant in monospecific than mixed stands. Our results highlight  
27 the importance of water availability and species-specific responses when evaluating  
28 admixture effects on drought vulnerability. Overall, we show positive effects of  
29 admixture on tree growth and resilience components for both *P. sylvestris* and *Q.*  
30 *pyrenaica*, supporting admixture as a management option for adaptation of Mediterranean  
31 mountain forests to climate change.

32 **Keywords:** Climate change, complementarity, forest management, growth stability,  
33 *Pinus sylvestris*, *Quercus pyrenaica*, tree diversity.

## 35 **1. Introduction**

36 Climate change is globally altering forest composition, structure and functioning  
37 (Allen et al., 2010, 2015; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2017), which ultimately compromises the  
38 provision of key ecosystem services to human well-being (Nelson et al., 2013).  
39 Mediterranean forests can be especially vulnerable ecosystems due to its high exposition  
40 to climate change (Lindner et al., 2010). Over the last century, temperature increased in  
41 the Mediterranean basin by 1.4 °C (Cramer et al., 2018), exacerbating drought impacts on  
42 tree growth and triggering drought-induced mortality events (Greenwood et al., 2017;  
43 Gazol et al., 2018; Madrigal-González et al., 2018). Climate change scenarios project a  
44 worrisome increase of 2-5 °C along 21<sup>st</sup> century coupled with a decrease in precipitation  
45 of up to 30%, and a higher frequency and intensity of extreme drought events (IPCC,  
46 2018; Spinoni et al., 2018). Thus, there is an urgent need to improve our knowledge about  
47 forest response to extreme droughts and to adequate management strategies to enhance  
48 long-term forest resilience.

49 Admixture, i.e. the increase in tree species diversity, may contribute to stabilize  
50 forest functioning and ecosystem services supply in response to disturbances (Gamfeldt  
51 et al., 2013). Several studies have showed a positive relationship between tree diversity  
52 and forest productivity at different spatial scales (Paquette and Messier, 2010; Ruiz-  
53 Benito et al., 2014; Pretzsch et al., 2015, 2019; Liang et al., 2016; Jactel et al., 2018).  
54 Admixture can also stabilize forest productivity and reduce growth sensitivity to climatic  
55 variability (del Río et al., 2017). All this body of evidence has led to the promotion of  
56 mixed stands in forestry practice worldwide (Bolte et al., 2010). However, some studies  
57 have reported a decrease in the magnitude of the positive effect of tree diversity on forest  
58 productivity with drought stress (Jactel et al., 2018; Toïgo et al., 2015). Furthermore,  
59 there is some uncertainty regarding admixture effects on the stability of forest

60 productivity to extreme drought events (Grossiord, 2019). In this regard, growth  
61 resilience, i.e. the capacity of individuals to restore pre-disturbance growth rates after a  
62 disturbance (Holling, 1996; Lloret et al., 2011), is an increasingly adopted concept to  
63 evaluate forest stability to extreme droughts (Nikinmaa et al., 2020). Despite some  
64 evidence of positive effects of admixture on resilience to drought (Lebourgeois et al.,  
65 2013; Gazol and Camarero, 2016; Steckel et al., 2020), other studies reported species- or  
66 site-specific effects (Pretzsch et al., 2013; Grossiord et al., 2014; Mölder and Leuschner,  
67 2014; Merlin et al., 2015; Granda et al., 2018; Jourdan et al., 2019a, 2019b). In addition,  
68 few studies have been conducted in Mediterranean areas (Granda et al., 2018), hampering  
69 our ability to make a correct assessment of admixture as an appropriate management  
70 option for adaptation of Mediterranean forests to climate change.

71         Admixture positive effects on forest productivity are commonly interpreted on the  
72 basis of complementarity, which includes both competition reduction and facilitation  
73 mechanisms (Ammer, 2019). On one hand, competition reduction usually occurs through  
74 niche partitioning, due to inter-specific differences in physiology, morphology and  
75 phenology, leading to disparate resource acquisition strategies (Forrester, 2014; Forrester  
76 and Bauhus, 2016). On the other hand, facilitation implies that one species increases the  
77 performance of coexisting species (Callaway, 1995). Active hydraulic redistribution  
78 (Querejeta et al., 2003; Zapater et al., 2011) and nocturnal water release (Prieto et al.,  
79 2012) are examples of facilitative mechanisms that result in increased soil moisture.  
80 These complementarity effects have been also associated with the biodiversity-stability  
81 relationship (Loreau and de Mazancourt, 2013), although other mechanisms such as  
82 temporal shifts in species interactions (del Río et al., 2017) and asynchronic species-  
83 specific responses to environmental fluctuations (Morin et al., 2014) have been also  
84 proposed.

85           Most of the research on complementarity effects on forest ecosystems have been  
86 conducted in forests without severe water limitations, where light-related interactions  
87 drive complementarity effects (e.g. Bayer et al., 2013; Pretzsch, 2014; Forrester and  
88 Bauhus, 2016). In seasonally dry areas, such as the Mediterranean basin, admixture  
89 positive effects rely on reducing competition for water and/or improving water  
90 availability (Jucker et al., 2014; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2014). Mediterranean tree species  
91 show a wide variety of water use strategies associated with different structural and  
92 physiological adaptations, such as stomatal behaviour (isohydric vs. anisohydric species)  
93 and rooting strategy (taproot vs superficial) (Zavala et al., 2000; Moreno-Gutiérrez et al.,  
94 2012; del Castillo et al., 2016; Martín-Gómez et al., 2017). This suggests the existence of  
95 complementarity mechanisms among species that would reduce competition for water in  
96 mixed forests and thus, enhance resilience to extreme droughts. However, whether  
97 admixture modifies tree responses to drought compared to monospecific stands is still  
98 under debate (Grossiord, 2019).

99           Mediterranean Iberian forests are excellent models for the evaluation of admixture  
100 effects on drought impacts (Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2018). Many of the current coniferous  
101 forests of the Iberian Peninsula (mainly *Pinus* spp.) are the result of large-scale  
102 afforestation policies during the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Vadell et al., 2016). The lack of subsequent  
103 forest management has resulted in structurally and functionally homogeneous even-aged  
104 dense stands (Villar-Salvador, 2016), which often show low growth rates (Gómez-  
105 Aparicio et al., 2009), high mortality (Sánchez-Salguero et al., 2012), lack of regeneration  
106 (Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012), and high vulnerability to fires and pests (Maestre and Cortina,  
107 2004). In this context, the admixture of oaks (*Quercus* spp.) in pine monospecific stands  
108 can be considered as a powerful tool to manage Mediterranean forests in the face of

109 climate change (Pausas et al., 2004), by both spreading drought-impact risk among  
110 multiple species and beneficial complementarity effects.

111 In this study, we compared tree growth response to drought conditions in mixed  
112 and monospecific stands of Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Pyrenean oak (*Quercus*  
113 *pyrenaica* Willd.) in central Spain. These species are frequently mixed in extensive areas  
114 of Iberian mountains at the ecotone between monospecific pine and oak stands (Sánchez  
115 de Dios et al., 2019). We employed a stand-level “triplet design” coupled with tree-ring  
116 data to analyze the effect of water availability on tree growth at an annual scale in both  
117 monospecific and mixed stands. Following this approach, we also quantified growth  
118 resilience, and associated components (resistance and recovery), to extreme drought  
119 events occurred during the last decades using the indices proposed by Lloret et al. (2011).  
120 Due to functional differences between target species regarding shade tolerance, leaf habit,  
121 rooting depth and water use strategies (del Castillo et al., 2016; Martín-Gómez et al.,  
122 2017; Moreno-Gutiérrez et al., 2012), we hypothesized lower drought-induced growth  
123 reductions and higher resilience to extreme droughts in mixed than monospecific stands  
124 due to complementarity effects.

## 125 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### 126 **2.1. Study area**

127 The study was conducted in the Sierra de Guadarrama National Park, in the centre  
128 of the Iberian Peninsula (40° 50' 26'' N; 3° 49' 34'' W). Climate is continental  
129 Mediterranean, characterized by cold winters and warm and dry summers, with  
130 precipitations concentrated in autumn and spring. Mean annual temperature and total  
131 precipitation is 11.4°C and 555.7 mm, respectively (period 1961-2018; data from CRU  
132 TS3.10 database, Harris et al. (2014)). *P. sylvestris* is the dominant tree species at high  
133 altitude, co-occurring with *Q. pyrenaica* at intermediate altitude (1,200-1,600 m a.s.l.),

134 although the later can also be found forming extensive monospecific stands. Understory  
135 species vary with altitude, being *Pteridium aquilinum* ((L.) Kuhn), *Genista florida* (L.),  
136 *Ilex aquifolium* (L.) and *Crataegus monogyna* (Jacq.) the most representative species.

## 137 **2.2. Sampling design**

138 We selected six independent forest sites on the southern face of the Sierra de  
139 Guadarrama at an altitude that ranged from 1,286 to 1,544 m a.s.l. (Table 1). At each site  
140 we selected 15 stands of 20 x 20 m (0.04 ha) following a triplet design. Thus, we sampled  
141 five monospecific stands of each species (100% of the basal area) and five mixed stands  
142 (basal area of the dominant tree species was lower than 70%). Field sampling was carried  
143 out from November 2018 to February 2019. We selected one tree in each monospecific  
144 stand and two trees (one of each species) in mixed stands (hereinafter focal trees). Focal  
145 trees were selected in the centre of the stand, and they were all dominant or co-dominant  
146 with no sign of vigour decline (i.e. defoliation or dry branches) or physical damages (e.g.  
147 due to snow or herbivory). In mixed stands, the distance between focal trees was lower  
148 than 5 m. We recorded the diameter at breast height (DBH) of each target tree and each  
149 neighboring tree within a circular plot of 7 m radius measured from the focal tree. We  
150 calculated the basal area of the circular plot and the Lorimer's distance-independent  
151 competition index (LCI) (Lorimer, 1983) as:

$$152 \quad LCI_i = \sum_{j=1}^n DBH_j / DBH_i$$

153 where  $DBH_i$  is the diameter at breast height of the target tree  $i$ , and  $DBH_j$  is the diameter  
154 at breast height of the neighboring tree  $j$ .

## 155 **2.3. Dendroecological methods**

156 We extracted one wood core per target tree at breast height using a Pressler  
157 increment borer (5 mm; Haglöf, Sweden). Wood cores were processed following standard  
158 dendrochronological methods (Fritts, 1976). First, wood cores were air-dried and glued  
159 on wooden supports. Then, they were sanded using sandpapers of progressively finer  
160 grains to maximize the visibility of the tree rings. Tree growth series were visually cross-  
161 dated using pointer years (Yamaguchi, 1991). Wood cores were scanned at 1,200 dpi  
162 resolution (EPSON® Perfection v800) and tree-ring widths were measured to the nearest  
163 0.01 mm using ImageJ® (Schneider et al., 2012).

164 Ring-width series were converted to basal area increment (BAI) assuming stem  
165 growth is approximately concentric:

$$166 \quad BAI = \pi(r_t^2 - r_{t-1}^2)$$

167 where  $r_t$  and  $r_{t-1}$  are the stem radius at the end and at the beginning of a given annual ring,  
168 respectively. BAI reflects whole tree growth better than the one-dimensional growth of  
169 tree ring width (Biondi and Qeadan, 2008). We also quantified annual tree size as the  
170 basal area of the tree for the whole BAI series, representing the increase in size with  
171 ageing. Even though the oldest tree was dated to 1905, we selected as study period 1961-  
172 2018 for the robustness of statistical analysis (70% of the target trees in 1961).

#### 173 **2.4. Identification of extreme drought events**

174 We used the CRU TS3.10 database (Harris et al., 2014) to characterized the  
175 climate of the study sites for the period 1961-2018. Annual mean temperature and annual  
176 precipitation from this database were highly correlated ( $r = 0.89$  and  $0.74$ , respectively  
177 using common years) with data from the nearest meteorological station (Navacerrada, 25  
178 km far from the closest site and at 1,894 m a.s.l). Water availability (P-PET) was  
179 characterized as the difference between annual precipitation and potential



180 evapotranspiration (PET) following Bigler et al. (2006). PET was calculated following  
181 Thornthwaite (1948). We calculated P-PET from October of the previous year to  
182 September of the present year to account for the influence of previous year conditions on  
183 the current growing season (Madrigal-González et al., 2017a).

184 Drought events were identified as extremely dry years with a significant reduction  
185 on tree growth (Schweingruber et al., 1990). Specifically, we selected as extreme  
186 droughts those years where P-PET was below the 15<sup>th</sup> percentile of the time series (i.e. P-  
187 PET values under -251.4 mm) and where at least 60% of the sampled trees showed a BAI  
188 reduction of at least 20% relative to the BAI average in the three preceding years. We  
189 selected 1986, 1995, 2005, 2012 and 2017 as extreme drought events (Fig. S1).

## 190 **2.5. Resistance, resilience and recovery to drought events**

191 To evaluate growth responses to selected drought events, we calculated growth  
192 resistance, resilience and recovery indices following Lloret et al. (2011):

$$193 \quad \textit{Resistance} = Dr/PreDr$$

$$194 \quad \textit{Resilience} = PostDr/PreDr$$

$$195 \quad \textit{Recovery} = PostDr/Dr$$

196 where Dr is the BAI the year of the drought event and PreDr and PostDr the mean BAI  
197 for three years before and after the drought event, respectively. We only calculated  
198 resistance index in 2017 since growth series finished in 2018. We also characterized water  
199 availability differences between evaluated periods as:

$$200 \quad PPET_{\textit{resistance}} = PPET_{dr} - PrePPET$$

$$201 \quad PPET_{\textit{resilience}} = PostPPET - PrePPET$$

202 
$$PPET_{recovery} = PostPPET - PPET_{dr}$$

203 where P-PET<sub>dr</sub> is the annual P-PET value the year of the drought event and PreP-PET and  
204 PostP-PET are the mean annual P-PET for three years before and after the drought event,  
205 respectively.

## 206 **2.6. Data analysis**

207 To analyse tree growth response to biotic and abiotic factors in mixed and  
208 monospecific stands, we modelled BAI using a linear mixed model (LMM). BAI was log-  
209 transformed to achieve homocedasticity. Tree identity nested within forest site was  
210 included as random effect to account for lack of independence resulting from repeated  
211 measurements within trees and forest sites. We also used an autoregressive correlation  
212 structure (AR1) to remove first-order autocorrelation in tree growth series (Pineiro et  
213 al., 2018). We considered as fixed effects annual tree size, stand type (mixed and  
214 monospecific), species (*P. sylvestris* and *Q. pyrenaica*), annual water availability (P-PET)  
215 and the Lorimer's competition index (LCI). To compare species growth sensitivity to  
216 drought and competition between stand types, we included in the model the interactions  
217 species × stand type × P-PET and species × stand type × LCI. A polynomial function was  
218 used for tree size because tree growth capacity increases until trees reach maturity and  
219 stabilize or decrease afterwards (Richards, 1959). Since growth-size relationships can be  
220 species-specific (Das, 2012), we also included in the model the interaction species × size.  
221 Continuous predictor variables were standardized (i.e. the mean was subtracted from each  
222 value and divided by the standard deviation) to allow comparisons across model-  
223 estimated parameters (Zuur et al., 2009).

224 To evaluate growth stability to drought events in mixed and monospecific stands,  
225 we fitted independent LMM for each growth resilience component (resilience, resistance

226 and recovery). Since different drought events were evaluated, we included tree identity  
227 nested within forest site as random effect. Growth resilience components were log-  
228 transformed to achieve homocedasticity. To evaluate whether resilience components are  
229 modulated by stand type and drought intensity, we included as fixed effect in the model  
230 the interaction species  $\times$  stand type  $\times$  P-PET<sub>dr</sub>. We also included the interaction species  $\times$   
231 tree size, and LCI and the P-PET difference between the periods considered for the  
232 calculation of resilience components (P-PET<sub>ret</sub>, P-PET<sub>res</sub> and P-PET<sub>rec</sub>) as covariates in  
233 the models (Andivia et al., 2020; DeSoto et al., 2020).

234 For both group of models, we built all alternative models and selected the most  
235 parsimonious ones based on the Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small sample  
236 sizes (AICc) (Burnham and Anderson, 2002) using as threshold two units of AICc (Zuur  
237 et al., 2009). All statistical analyses were performed in R (R v3.5.2; R Core Team, 2018)  
238 using the packages *nlme* (Pinheiro et al., 2018) and *MuMIn* (Barton, 2016).

### 239 **3. RESULTS**

#### 240 **3.1. Stand structure and tree characteristics**

241 Stand structure size and the age of target trees varied among selected forest sites (Table  
242 1). In general, *Q. pyrenaica* monospecific stands were denser than mixed and *P. sylvestris*  
243 monospecific stands, while LCI values showed no clear trend among stand types (Table  
244 1). The age at 1.3 m and DBH of target trees ranged from 15 to 113 years and from 22 to  
245 54 cm for *P. sylvestris*, while ranged from 30 to 110 years and from 15 to 55 cm for *Q.*  
246 *pyrenaica*, respectively. Studied species showed similar tree age and DBH (mean  $\pm$  SD)  
247 in both stand types. *P. sylvestris* age was  $73.1 \pm 20.0$  and  $81.9 \pm 21.5$ , and the DBH was  
248  $31.7 \pm 12.8$  cm and  $28.7 \pm 11.4$  cm in mixed and monospecific stands, respectively. *Q.*

249 *pyrenaica* age was  $62.7 \pm 15.5$  and  $61.9 \pm 17.6$ , and the DBH was  $12.3 \pm 7.8$  cm and  $12.1$   
 250  $\pm 5.6$  cm in mixed and monospecific stands, respectively.

251 **Table 1.** Stand structure and characteristics of target trees for the studied forest sites.  
 252 CAN: Canencia, MIR: Miraflores, MOR: Morcuera, NAV: Navafría, PNA: Peña Alta,  
 253 SMP: Santa María del Paular. Mix: mixed stands, MoP: Monospecific stands of *P.*  
 254 *sylvestris*, MoQ: Monospecific stands of *Q. pyrenaica*. Tree age at 1.3 m (No. years);  
 255 DBH: Diameter at Breast Height (cm); LCI: Lorimer's distance-independent Competition  
 256 Index; Density: number of trees per hectare. Showed values are mean  $\pm$  SD. For each  
 257 forest site altitude and coordinates are showed.

Site	Stand	Tree age	DBH	LCI	Density
CAN 1341 m 40.84, -3.77	Mix	$77.2 \pm 12.5$	$25.6 \pm 14.0$	$6.0 \pm 1.9$	$864 \pm 539$
	MoP	$67.4 \pm 31.2$	$25.8 \pm 14.3$	$7.6 \pm 2.2$	$897 \pm 527$
	MoQ	$51.6 \pm 14.2$	$14.6 \pm 8.1$	$6.7 \pm 3.8$	$1,546 \pm 884$
MIR 1287 m 40.82, -3.79	Mix	$67.4 \pm 7.5$	$23.5 \pm 11.4$	$10.4 \pm 4.3$	$994 \pm 178$
	MoP	$77.0 \pm 6.6$	$28.1 \pm 7.3$	$12.9 \pm 2.7$	$1196 \pm 74$
	MoQ	$67.8 \pm 6.2$	$11.7 \pm 6.4$	$8.5 \pm 4.9$	$2,274 \pm 492$
MOR 1544 m 40.84, -3.80	Mix	$63.2 \pm 11.9$	$17.7 \pm 14.3$	$13.0 \pm 10.6$	$1,182 \pm 479$
	MoP	$73.2 \pm 3.3$	$34.9 \pm 9.7$	$6.4 \pm 1.8$	$546 \pm 187$
	MoQ	$64.2 \pm 6.3$	$10.2 \pm 5.1$	$15.8 \pm 12.8$	$3,898 \pm 876$
NAV 1530 m 40.98, -3.79	Mix	$73.7 \pm 27.2$	$14.1 \pm 10.6$	$19.8 \pm 13.8$	$2,417 \pm 569$
	MoP	$105.0 \pm 2.2$	$32.1 \pm 8.3$	$13.1 \pm 4.5$	$1,052 \pm 404$
	MoQ	$52.6 \pm 1.9$	$11.8 \pm 4.1$	$20.8 \pm 7.2$	$3,482 \pm 872$
PNA 1536 m 40.98, -3.80	Mix	$63.8 \pm 20.7$	$21.5 \pm 14.5$	$13.2 \pm 9.6$	$1,195 \pm 312$
	MoP	$82.0 \pm 31.6$	$22.9 \pm 10.6$	$13.1 \pm 3.8$	$1,546 \pm 587$
	MoQ	$85.0 \pm 21.6$	$12.7 \pm 4.8$	$16.2 \pm 12.7$	$3,366 \pm 536$
SMP 1288 m 40.86, -3.89	Mix	$62.0 \pm 22.5$	$18.4 \pm 14.9$	$17.0 \pm 17.2$	$1,098 \pm 647$
	MoP	$86.6 \pm 15.4$	$34.6 \pm 12.5$	$9.7 \pm 3.8$	$923 \pm 354$
	MoQ	$47.0 \pm 17.6$	$14.3 \pm 5.5$	$14.8 \pm 8.6$	$1,507 \pm 922$

258

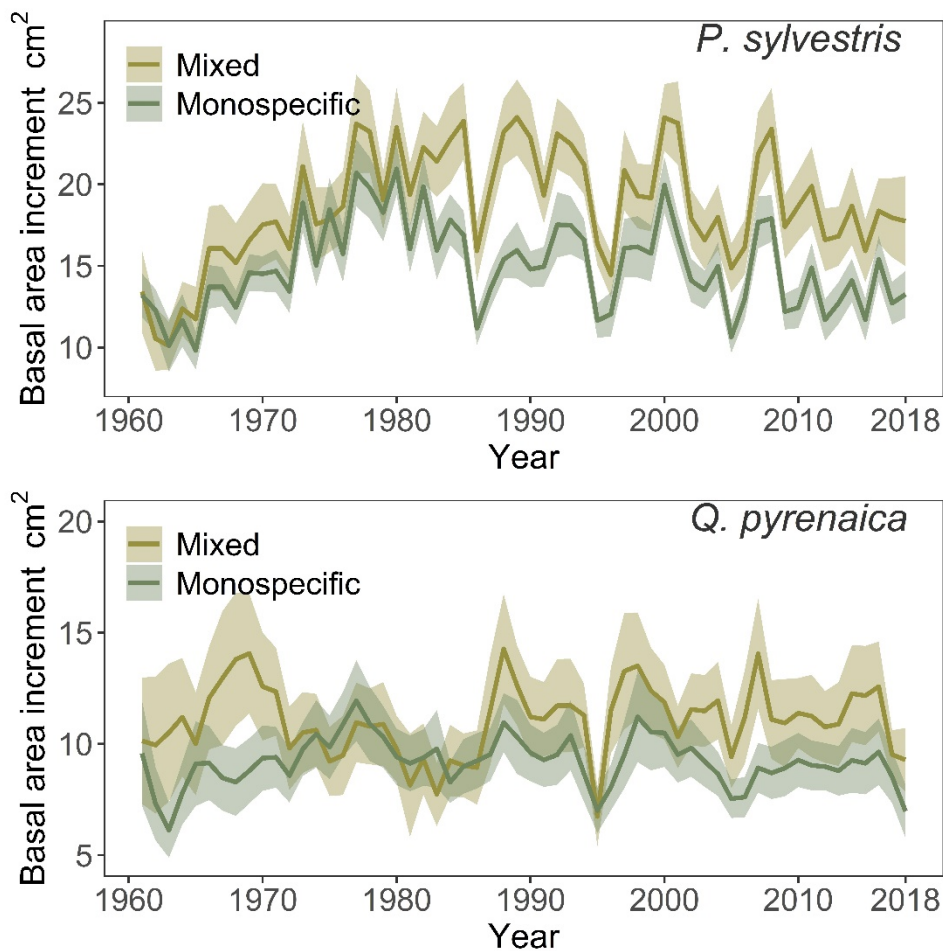
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261

262 **3.2. Abiotic and biotic drivers of tree growth**

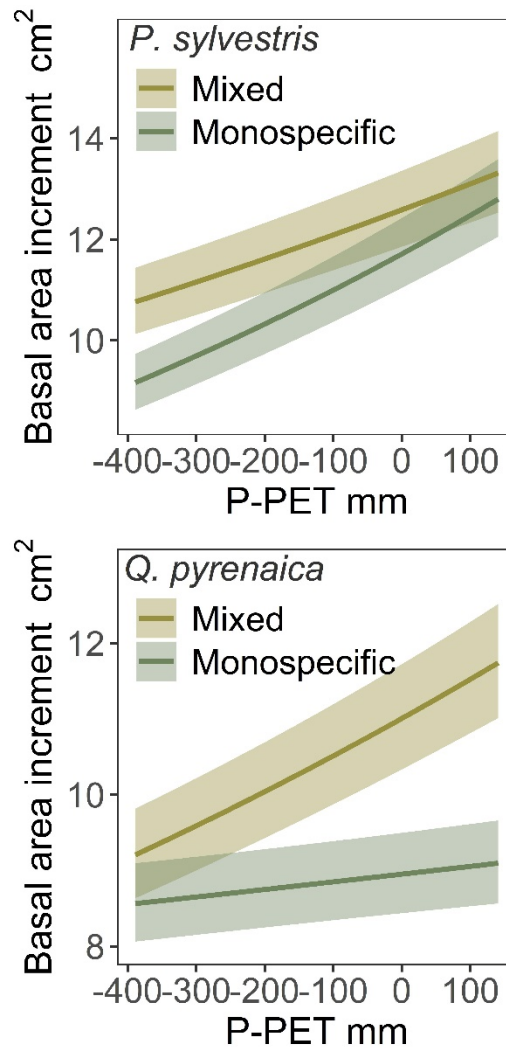
263 Target trees showed high inter-annual variability in tree growth, especially for *P.*  
264 *sylvestris* (Fig. 1). *P. sylvestris* showed greater mean BAI over the study period (1961-  
265 2018) than *Q. pyrenaica* ( $16.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm}^2$  and  $10.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm}^2$ , respectively). Stand type  
266 also influence tree growth (Fig. 1), since both species showed greater BAI in mixed than  
267 in monospecific stands ( $18.8 \pm 0.3$  vs  $14.9 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm}^2$  for *P. sylvestris* and  $11.0 \pm 0.3$  vs  
268  $9.2 \pm 0.2 \text{ cm}^2$  for *Q. pyrenaica*, respectively). Yet, BAI differences between forest types  
269 were more evident after the 80's, especially for *P. sylvestris*.



270

271 **Figure 1:** Basal area increment pattern (mean  $\pm$  standard error) over the study period for  
272 each study species and stand type.

273           The most parsimonious growth model included the triple interaction species ×  
274 stand type × P-PET, the pairwise interaction species × tree size, and the main effect of  
275 the LCI (Table S1). The model explained 47% of variance for random and fixed effects  
276 (conditional R<sup>2</sup>) and 46% of variance for fixed effects only (marginal pseudo-R<sup>2</sup>). As  
277 expected, tree size effect on BAI was species-specific and tree growth was negatively  
278 related to LCI (Table S2). Although P-PET had a positive effect on tree growth, growth  
279 sensitivity to P-PET was determined by the interaction between tree species and stand  
280 type (Table S2). *P. sylvestris* showed a higher tree growth sensitivity to P-PET (i.e. higher  
281 model slope) in monospecific than in mixed stands, resulting in greater BAI in mixed  
282 stands in years with low water availability (Fig. 2). On the contrary, *Q. pyrenaica* growth  
283 sensitivity to P-PET was much higher in mixed than in monospecific stands. *Q. pyrenaica*  
284 showed greater BAI in mixed than monospecific stands, especially in years with high  
285 water availability (Fig. 2).



286

287 **Figure 2:** Predicted annual basal area increment ( $\pm$  95% confidence interval) in response  
 288 to annual water availability (P-PET) for each study species and stand type.

289 **3.3. Growth resilience in response to drought events**

290 The most parsimonious models for growth resilience components included different fixed  
 291 effects. Growth resistance was affected by the interaction species  $\times$  stand type (Table S3).

292 While *P. sylvestris* was more resistant to drought events in mixed than in monospecific  
 293 stands ( $0.87 \pm 0.02$  and  $0.81 \pm 0.02$ , respectively), *Q. pyrenaica* showed the opposite trend

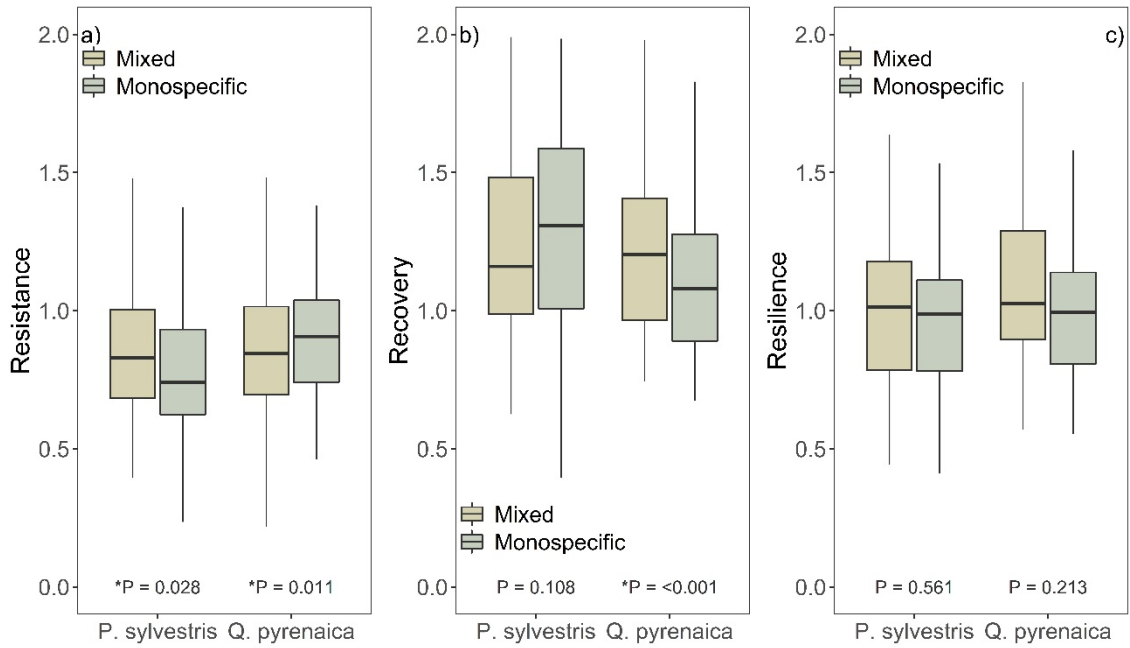
294 ( $0.87 \pm 0.03$  and  $0.96 \pm 0.03$ , respectively) (Fig. 3a, Table S4). Growth recovery was also  
 295 affected by the interaction species  $\times$  stand type (Table S5). *Q. pyrenaica* showed a greater

296 recovery after drought events in mixed than in monospecific stands ( $1.48 \pm 0.07$  and 1.19

297  $\pm 0.04$ , respectively), whereas *P. sylvestris* showed similar recovery in both stand types  
298 ( $1.28 \pm 0.04$  and  $1.39 \pm 0.04$ ) (Fig. 3b, Table S5). In addition, growth recovery was also  
299 affected by differences in water availability after drought (P-PET<sub>rec</sub>) and by the  
300 interaction species  $\times$  drought intensity (P-PET<sub>dr</sub>). Both species showed greater recovery  
301 with increasing P-PET<sub>rec</sub> and decreasing P-PET<sub>dr</sub>, respectively (Table S6). However, the  
302 increase in recovery with decreasing drought intensity was higher in *Q. pyrenaica* than in  
303 *P. sylvestris* (estimated model slopes  $\pm$  SE,  $0.35 \pm 0.05$  and  $0.14 \pm 0.05$ , respectively; Fig  
304 4a, Table S6).

305 Growth resilience was also affected by water availability differences between the  
306 post- and the pre-drought periods (P-PET<sub>res</sub>) and by the interaction species  $\times$  drought  
307 intensity (P-PET<sub>dr</sub>) (Table S7). However, we did not find any effect of stand type on  
308 growth resilience (Fig. 3c). Growth resilience was negatively related to P-PET<sub>res</sub>  
309 (estimated model slope  $\pm$  SE,  $-0.20 \pm 0.06$ ). Analogously to growth recovery, resilience  
310 increased with decreasing drought intensity, especially in *Q. pyrenaica* (estimated model  
311 slopes  $\pm$  SE,  $0.46 \pm 0.06$  and  $0.002 \pm 0.06$ , respectively) (Fig 4b). Growth resilience was  
312 also affected by the interaction species  $\times$  tree size. Growth resilience decreased with tree  
313 size in *P. sylvestris*, but no effect was found in *Q. pyrenaica* (estimated model slopes  $\pm$   
314 SE,  $0.07 \pm 0.02$  and  $0.02 \pm 0.02$ , respectively; Table S8).

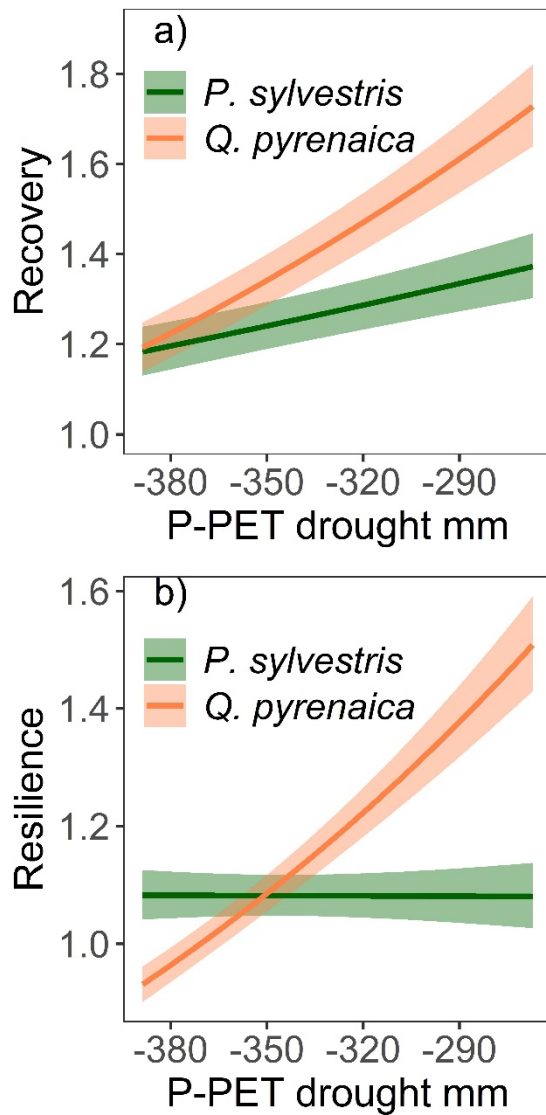




315

316 **Figure 3:** Boxplots of growth resistance (a), recovery (b) and resilience (c) for study  
 317 species and stand type. For each boxplot, the P-value of the comparison between stand  
 318 types is shown. Asterisks show significant interactions ( $P < 0.05$ ). Boxes are 95% and  
 319 5% percentile values, whiskers depict maximum and minimum values and the solid lines  
 320 indicate the median.

321



322

323 **Figure 4:** Model prediction ( $\pm$  95% confidence interval) for growth recovery (a) and  
 324 resilience (b) for each study species in response to drought intensity (P-PET<sub>dr</sub>).

325

326

## 327 4. DISCUSSION

### 328 4.1. Admixture effects on tree growth and resilience components

329 Our results show beneficial effects of admixture on tree growth for the widely distributed  
 330 sub-Mediterranean *Q. pyrenaica* and boreal *P. sylvestris* in drought-limited

331 Mediterranean mountains. Admixture positive effects on tree growth response to water  
332 availability were species-specific, which resulted in contrasting effects on the different  
333 components of growth resilience to extreme drought events. *P. sylvestris* showed higher  
334 growth in mixed than in monospecific stands in years with low water availability, which  
335 also resulted in a higher growth resistance to extreme droughts in mixed stands. On the  
336 contrary, growth differences between mixed and monospecific stands increased with  
337 increasing water availability for *Q. pyrenaica*, showing higher recovery after extreme  
338 drought events in mixed stands. On the one hand, these results can help to clarify the  
339 ongoing debate on the relationship between tree diversity and resilience to drought in  
340 forest ecosystems, pointing to the importance of species- and climate-specific effects. On  
341 the other hand, our results have key implications for forest management, suggesting  
342 *P. sylvestris*-*Q. pyrenaica* mixed stands as an adaptation solution for mid-elevation forests  
343 in the Iberian Peninsula under increased aridity.

344         The positive effect of admixture on tree growth can be explained by  
345 complementarity due to both mechanisms, facilitation and competition reduction (Loreau  
346 and Hector., 2001; Callaway, 2007; Brooker et al., 2008). According to the stress gradient  
347 hypothesis (Bertness and Callaway, 1994), positive interactions among species are more  
348 common in areas with high environmental stress, which is the case of drought-limited  
349 forests in Mediterranean mountains (e.g. Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2004). On the one hand,  
350 competition reduction relies on inter-specific differences in resource acquisition  
351 strategies. Study species show remarkable differences in shade tolerance, leaf phenology,  
352 water-use strategy, and root structure (Niinemets and Valladares, 2006; Poyatos et al.,  
353 2008; Río and Sterba, 2009). Among them, vertical rooting stratification is a key  
354 complementarity mechanism in drought-limited forest ecosystems (Grossiord, 2019). In  
355 this regard, some studies in mixed stands showed that conifers have access to shallower

356 water resources while oak species can access deeper ones due to a more extensive and  
357 deep root system (Poyatos et al., 2008; del Castillo et al., 2016; Martín-Gómez et al.,  
358 2017). On the other hand, facilitation could occur through hydraulic lift by oak species  
359 under moderate and severe drought conditions, which increases water availability in the  
360 upper soil horizons for the admixed species (Querejeta et al., 2003; Zapater et al., 2011).

361         The higher growth during dry years and resistance to extreme droughts for *P.*  
362 *sylvestris* in mixed than monospecific stands might be driven mainly by water-related  
363 facilitation mechanisms. Hydraulic lift can increase not only water availability for *P.*  
364 *sylvestris*, but also root growth and functioning as well as nutrient availability due to  
365 positive effects of increasing humidity on organic matter decomposition and  
366 mineralization (Rothe and Binkley, 2001; Richards et al., 2010; Prieto et al., 2012, del  
367 Castillo et al., 2016). Competition reduction in response to low water availability seems  
368 not to play a prevailing role in our study since admixture showed neutral effects on *Q.*  
369 *pyrenaica* growth in dry years. In fact, *Q. pyrenaica* showed higher resistance to extreme  
370 droughts in monospecific than in mixed stands. Accordingly, Steckel et al., (2020)  
371 showed a reduction of admixture positive effects on *Q. robur* and *Q. petraea* response to  
372 drought in driest sites when co-occurring with *P. sylvestris*.

373         Interestingly, admixture positive effects on *Q. pyrenaica* growth emerged with  
374 increasing water availability. Reduced inter-specific competition coupled to higher  
375 above- and below-ground competitive capacity could allow *Q. pyrenaica* to maximize  
376 light and nutrient capture in mixed stands under non-limited water conditions  
377 (Longuetaud et al., 2013; Madrigal-González et al., 2016), which might also explain the  
378 higher recovery of *Q. pyrenaica* after extreme droughts in mixed than in monospecific  
379 stands. In addition, functional differences in leaf traits between study species can also  
380 improve mineralization and decomposition processes, ultimately increasing nutrient

381 availability in mixed stands (Rothe and Binkley, 2001; Andivia et al., 2016; Santonja et  
382 al., 2017). Despite *P. sylvestris* is also likely to benefit from increased nutrient  
383 availability, competition for light could offset positive admixture effects under moderate  
384 to high water availability conditions due to larger leaf areas. In this context, *Q. pyrenaica*  
385 could be favoured over *P. sylvestris* due to its broad-leaved habit and higher tolerance to  
386 shade (Zavala et al., 2000; Niinemets and Valladares, 2006).

#### 387 **4.2. Growth resilience components**

388 To analyze growth resilience components, we simultaneously considered all extreme  
389 drought events occurred during recent decades (1986-2018), which represents a more  
390 realistic approach to assess overall growth response to drought than analyzing each event  
391 separately. In fact, under ongoing climate change, trees are exposed to recurrent extreme  
392 drought events (Spinoni et al., 2018), which has been proved to reduce the resilience  
393 capacity of forest tree species (Andivia et al., 2020; Serra-Maluquer et al., 2018).  
394 However, by doing so, we did not account for specific details about drought onset and  
395 duration of each event, which could influence species drought sensitivity (Hoffmann et  
396 al., 2018). To partly avoid this, we followed recent recommendations to quantify growth  
397 resilience (DeSoto et al., 2020; Schwarz et al., 2020). Specifically, we evaluated growth  
398 resilience components after controlling for among-events differences in drought intensity  
399 ( $PPET_{dr}$ ) and water availability differences between growth periods ( $PPET_{re}$ ,  $PPET_{res}$ ,  
400  $PPET_{rec}$ ).

401         Decreasing drought intensity and differences in water availability between post-  
402 and drought periods had a positive effect on growth recovery of both species. This agrees  
403 with other studies pointing to the importance of site climatic conditions on growth  
404 recovery capacity (Gazol et al., 2017; Steckel et al., 2020). Decreasing drought intensity  
405 also increased resilience for *Q. pyrenaica*, but not for *P. sylvestris*. This, and the higher

406 effect of decreasing drought intensity on *Q. pyrenaica* recovery, might be partly explained  
407 by the anisohydric behavior of oaks, i.e. the preservation of transpiration rates at low  
408 water potential (Fernández-De-Uña et al. 2017, Martín-Gómez et al. 2017). Thus, *Q.*  
409 *pyrenaica* might take advantage of increased water availability, and faster refilling of soil  
410 water reserves with decreasing drought intensity, to maximize post-drought tree growth,  
411 and thus recovery and resilience. In fact, oak species at dry sites show positive drought  
412 legacies (Anderegg et al., 2015). On the contrary, the isohydric behavior of *P. sylvestris*  
413 (i.e. tight stomatal control under drought conditions; Irvine et al., 1998), seems to respond  
414 to specific drought threshold through prolonged stomata closure, reducing photosynthesis  
415 and depleting carbohydrate reserves, which might ultimately impair post-drought growth.  
416 Finally, the negative effect of differences in water availability between post- and pre-  
417 drought periods on resilience may reflect a negative legacy of moderate dry conditions  
418 during pre-disturbance period on post-drought growth. We also considered tree size when  
419 evaluating growth resilience components, since size strongly influences tree growth  
420 dynamics and thus resilience capacity (Andivia et al., 2020). Tree size was negatively  
421 related to growth resilience for *P. sylvestris*, which contrasts to previous studies with this  
422 species using different size categories (Merlin et al., 2015). Larger trees can be more  
423 exposed to drought due to their greater foliar biomass and the dominant position in the  
424 stand (Martín-Benito et al., 2008), which might increase water demand and respiration  
425 costs affecting post-drought recovery.

426         Contrary to our hypothesis, we did not find differences in species resilience  
427 capacity mediated by stand type. These results can be related to reported trade-offs  
428 between growth resistance and recovery (Hodgson et al., 2015; Hoffmann et al., 2018).  
429 This trade-off might explain the observed higher recovery in mixed stands and higher  
430 resistance in monospecific ones for *Q. pyrenaica*. The lack of this trade-off for *P.*

431 *sylvestris*, which showed higher resistance in mixed than monospecific stands but similar  
432 recovery, could be due to the above-mentioned strong negative drought legacy effects  
433 reported for conifer species (Anderegg et al., 2015), which could impair post-drought  
434 recovery in both type of stands.

### 435 **4.3. Implications for forest management**

436 Our results showed positive effects of admixture on tree growth and resilience  
437 components for both *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pyrenaica*. The positive effect of admixture on  
438 *P. sylvestris* growth response during dry years and resistance to extreme droughts can be  
439 critical at the southern distribution limit of the species under increased aridity conditions.  
440 In addition, enhancement of *Q. pyrenaica* tree growth in years without water limitations,  
441 suggests that increasing tree diversity can also contribute to increase the productivity of  
442 Mediterranean mountain forests (Río and Sterba, 2009). On the other hand, we found a  
443 negative effect of competition on tree growth irrespectively of species identity and the  
444 type of stand analysed, which suggests that thinning is a key tool to improve forest  
445 resilience and response to drought, in agreement with previous studies (Kohler et al.,  
446 2010; Sohn et al. 2016). This is especially relevant for monospecific conifer stands in the  
447 Iberian peninsula, since lack of forest management during the last decades have led to  
448 dense stands with a high vulnerability to drought, fires and pests (Maestre and Cortina,  
449 2004; Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2011; Sánchez-Salguero et al., 2012). However, drought  
450 impacts on forest dynamics rely not only on tree growth responses but also on recruitment  
451 and mortality (Allen et al., 2010; Madrigal-González et al., 2017b). Thus, further studies  
452 should also evaluate admixture effects on other demographic rates to provide a  
453 comprehensive view of the response of mixed stand to drought events (Andivia et al.,  
454 2020; Madrigal-González et al., 2017b). This is of pivotal importance to properly evaluate

455 tree diversity effects on forest resilience, but also to design forest management strategies  
456 oriented to guarantee the long-term persistence of mixed stands.

457

## 458 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

459 Our results suggest that mixed stands of *P. sylvestris* and *Q. pyrenaica* are less vulnerable  
460 to drought than their monospecific counterparts, corroborating positive complementarity  
461 effects between contrasting functional species. Thus, this study contributes to the growing  
462 body of evidences supporting admixture as a management option for adaptation of forests  
463 to climate change. Promoting mixed stands of pine and oak species may contribute to  
464 increase forest productivity while reducing vulnerability to climatic disturbances.  
465 However, positive effects on tree growth and resilience were species-specific and  
466 contingent upon water availability, which suggests that further studies should include  
467 more species combination and the whole environmental gradient over the natural area  
468 where species co-occur.

469

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478

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480

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