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- 1 Effects of stand composition and tree size on resistance and resilience to drought in sessile
- 2 oak and Scots pine

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11 Abstract

The IPCC previsions for the upcoming decades include an increase in frequency and intensity 12 of drought events in several regions worldwide, including Northern Europe. Drought 13 significantly affects forest ecosystems through decreased productivity, increased vulnerability 14 to biotic disturbances and increased subsequent mortality. How forest ecosystems maintain 15 resistance and resilience to drought events are important questions. Our study aimed to assess 16 whether species mixture or an individual tree size within a stand alters a given tree's 17 resilience and resistance to drought. A retrospective study of tree-ring widths allowed us to 18 calculate resistance, resilience and recovery indices for five recent drought events: 1976, the 19 1990-1992 period, 2003, 2006 and 2010. These drought events were selected based on the 20 21 SPEI (Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index) drought index. Our study sample consisted of 108 individual sessile oak (Quercus petraea (Matt.)) or Scots pine (Pinus 22 sylvestris L.) trees sampled in 2012 and 2013 (Orleans forest, central France) in pure and 23 24 mixed stands, divided into three diameter classes corresponding to three sizes: large, medium and small trees. Scots pine performed better than sessile oak during the 1990-1992 and 2010 25 droughts while the contrary was observed for the 2003 and 2006 droughts. They performed 26 equally in 1976. We suggest that the differing sensitivity of the two species to spring and 27 summer drought explained this result. In our study, stand composition had no effect on 28 resilience or resistance for either species. The size effect in oaks was unclear as small oaks 29 displayed either a better performance or a worse performance than large oaks. Small pines 30 displayed better resistance and resilience than pines of a larger size. This work stressed the 31 32 importance of taking into account stand composition and trees size as well as soil and climatic conditions for each drought events to achieve a better understanding of the diversity of 33 responses to climatic variations among forest ecosystems. 34

35 Keywords: drought; resistance; resilience; sessile oak; Scots pine; tree size; stand
36 composition.

37 1. Introduction

38 In the recent decades, the long term increase in temperature and changes in precipitation patterns (IPCC, 2013) accompanied by an increase in the frequency and intensity of extreme 39 climatic events such as droughts (Smith, 2011) have been the object of several studies. The 40 events are major disturbances, both ecologically and socially. The intense 1976 and 2003 41 droughts in Europe marked people's minds, and foresters were no exception. They were the 42 43 first to witness forest decline and tree mortality following these droughts. The ability of forest ecosystems to face such climate changes and extreme events has become a major question for 44 the scientific community. There is a large number of studies addressing this question (Bréda et 45 46 al., 2006; Allen et al., 2010; Lloret et al., 2012). At the ecosystem level, the composition (Smith, 2011; Cavin et al., 2013), structure and distribution of forests as well as the water, 47 carbon and nutrient cycles are expected to be modified in the context of climate change (Bréda 48 et al., 2006; Galiano et al., 2011; Cheaib et al., 2012). Impacts on tree growth and wood 49 production are becoming significant with increasing forest decline and mortality in some parts 50 51 of Europe, especially in Mediterranean environments (Martinez-Vilalta and Pñol, 2002; Vacchiano et al., 2012; Vila-Cabrera et al., 2013). 52

To assess ecosystem stability or species response, three basic aspects can be considered: resistance, recovery and resilience (Grimm and Wissel, 1997). Resistance is the capacity of an ecosystem, species or individual to remain basically unchanged when it is subjected to a disturbance. Recovery is the capacity to regain growth or any other characteristic negatively affected after a disturbance. Resilience is the ability to recover pre-disturbance structures and functions after a disturbance. In the perspective of climate change, these three aspects are essential to conserving ecosystems and their functions, or at a smaller scale, species and evenindividuals.

Ecosystems involve several levels of complexity and diversity. Many studies have examined 61 the benefits of mixed forests (Forrester *et al.*, 2006; Kelty, 2006). Interest in mixed stands is 62 inspired by observations of increased biodiversity in the ecosystem (Felton et al., 2010), 63 better resistance to some biotic disturbances (Jactel and Brockerhoff, 2007; Perot et al., 2013) 64 and an increase in productivity in most cases when compared to monoculture stands (Knoke 65 et al., 2008; Vallet and Perot, 2011). Despite an increasing number of studies relative to 66 mixed stands, we still know little about their functioning compared with pure stands. Niche 67 complementarity, which enables a better use of the available resources - including water, is a 68 common hypothesis to explain increased productivity in mixtures (Lebourgeois et al., 2013). 69 Therefore, studying the potential consequences of climate change – induced modifications in 70 water availability on mixed and monoculture stands is crucial. Two hypotheses could be made 71 72 for the response of mixed stands to drought. Firstly, mixed stands could improve individual tree species' performance during drought; a species might be mixed with another species 73 which does not occupy the same water reserves. This would lead to a release of intraspecific 74 competition combined with the possibility of facilitation alleviating drought stress through a 75 partitioning of the water reserves between the species (Lebourgeois et al., 2013; Pretzsch et 76 al., 2013). The involved species would be expected to benefit from this interaction. Secondly 77 and reversely, mixed stands could decrease individual species' performance during drought as 78 it has been observed depending on the tree species and soil conditions. This would result in an 79 80 increased interspecific competition during drought stress (Jucker et al., 2014). The involved species or the least competitive species would then suffer from mixing during water shortage 81 periods, affecting tree growth and functions such as photosynthesis, transpiration or sap flow 82 83 (Grossiord et al., 2014).

Another level of complexity in forest ecosystems lies in the existence of varying individual 84 85 tree size within a stand. The majority of studies conducted on the impact of drought on forest stands focus on dominant trees, i.e. the largest in diameter with generally more developed 86 crowns and root systems. It is possible to hierarchically organize the trees in an even-aged 87 stand according to their diameter, reflecting differences between individual tree functional 88 statutes within an even-aged stand (Dhôte, 1994). This hierarchy implies a differential 89 90 availability of resources such as water (Dawson, 1996), nutrients and light (Dhôte, 1994). It also affects the intensity of competition between individuals. Population hierarchy can 91 consequently play an important role in an individual's responses to climatic and biological 92 93 disturbances (Pichler and Oberhuber, 2007; Martín-Benito et al., 2008; Mérian and Lebourgeois, 2011; Zang et al., 2012). It is important to incorporate both stand composition 94 (pure or mixed stands) and individual tree size in the stand as explanatory variables when 95 96 studying tree species response to abiotic disturbances such as drought in order to assess the risks associated with climate change and to propose adapted forest management strategies. 97

We studied the effects of tree size and stand composition on resistance and resilience to 98 drought in terms of radial growth for two species: a deciduous broadleaved species; sessile 99 oak (Quercus petraea Matt.) and a conifer needled species; Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris L.). 100 These two tree species have very different characteristics, suggesting they may have different 101 responses to drought (Bréda et al., 2006; Eilmann et al., 2006; Bréda and Badeau, 2008; 102 Michelot et al., 2012a), and are widespread throughout European forests in both pure and 103 104 mixed stands. Sessile oak is a mesophilic species with a deep root system which prefers semi-105 shady environments well adapted to occasional droughts. During periods of water deficit, leaf water potential is reduced, potentially leading to xylem cavitation. The large vessels in oak 106 107 earlywood are very sensitive to winter embolism (Tyree and Cochard, 1996) and water 108 circulation must be restored each spring by the formation of at least one new tangential row of

large vessels. Sessile oak is common in Western Europe and is the most widespread species 109 110 in French forests (National Forest Inventory data). Scots pine is a light-demanding evergreen species. Its root system is more superficial than most broadleaved species but it does develop 111 a strong first pivot and lateral roots. Water potential in the needles is maintained above a 112 threshold level thanks to stomatal closure during periods of water deficit which minimizes the 113 risk of xylem cavitation. Scots pine can stop its radial growth entirely when conditions are too 114 harsh possibly leading to missing tree rings. Its drought tolerance as defined by Niinemets and 115 Valladares (2006) is slightly higher than sessile oak. It is widely distributed throughout 116 temperate and boreal Europe and is common in French forests and around the Mediterranean 117 118 basin. Both species are present in pure or mixed stands at our study site in the Orkans National 119 Forest in central France.

Radial growth is sensitive to biotic and abiotic disturbances (Lebourgeois et al., 2010; Olivar 120 et al., 2012; Wiley et al., 2013; Palacio et al., 2014). It can be used for past climatic 121 122 reconstructions or for retrospective analysis of tree performance during past known disturbances (Speer, 2010). We thus used radial growth to evaluate how individual trees 123 responded to past climatic severe events such as drought using indices of resistance, recovery 124 and resilience. We selected five drought events between 1970 and 2013 based on the SPEI 125 (Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index), a drought index defined by Vicente-126 Serrano et al. (2010). We sought to answer the following three questions: 127

128

1. Do sessile oak and Scots pine respond differently to past drought events?

- 129 2. Does stand composition (mixed stand *versus* pure stand) improve or deteriorate130 individual tree's radial growth during drought events?
- 131 3. Does tree status represented by tree size affect individual tree's response to drought?
- 132 2. Material and methods

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133 2.1. Study site and species

For simplification, it is reasonable to partitionate this continuum of tree diameter. Three 134 classes of tree size can thus be distinguished based on diameter: large trees, medium trees and 135 small trees, excluding understorey trees. The study site is located in the center of France, in 136 the Orkans National Forest (France, 4800'N, 209' E) which extends over 35,000 hectares and 137 is managed by the National Forest Office. Elevation ranges from 107 m to 174 m a.s l. 138 Throughout the forest the soil is relatively poor and acidic with a sandy clay-loam texture 139 (Table 1Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.), and is classified as a planosol (IUSS Working 140 Group, 2014). Superimposed layers of clay and sand lead to a temporary perched water table 141 in winter, but the low soil water storage capacity reduces available water for plants in 142 summer. The area has a temperate continental climate with an oceanic influence (mean 143 minimum temperature of 0.7 $^{\circ}$ C in February; mean maximum temperature of 25 $^{\circ}$ C in July). 144 The mean annual rainfall is 740 mm (1969 to 2013 data from the weather station at Nogent-145 sur-Vernisson, France). 146

147 The species studied were sessile oak *Quercus petraea* (Matt.) and Scots pine *Pinus sylvestris*148 L., managed in pure or mixed stands.

Table 1. Physico-chemical characteristics of the forest site soil (at 20-40 cm in depth, mean,
standard deviation (s.d.), n=30). Cation exchange capacity (CEC) is given in milli-equivalents
of hydrogen per 100 g (meq/100g).

	Clay	Fine silt	Coarse silt	Fine sand	Coarse sand	С	Ν	C/N	pH- KCl	CEC
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)			(meq/100g)
Mean	8.6	11.8	7.9	14.3	55.8	0.92	0.046	19.6	4.43	4.21
(s.d.)	(2.4)	(2.8)	(2.3)	(2.2)	(7.5)	(0.25)	(0.010)	(2.9)	(0.16)	(2.58)

152 2.2. Sampling design

Nine plots were selected on three sites in even-aged stands (50 - 80 years old) as part of the 153 154 Oak Pine Tree Mixture Experiment (OPTMix) (Korboulewsky et al., 2013). Each site has one plot of pure sessile oak, one plot of pure Scots pine and one plot with a mixture of the two 155 species. All plots have similar soil conditions, floral compositions, tree age, sylvicultural 156 treatments and diameter distributions (Table 2). For each plot, a 1.5-2 ha area was delimited 157 and the position of each tree was mapped before the individual tree selection process. Nine 158 trees per species and per plot were chosen according to a stratified sampling design with 159 constraints. We studied the following two factors: 160

- The local composition or mixing rate: the mixing rate in the local environment (a 10m-161 radius circle around each selected tree) was calculated as a percentage of the partial 162 Relative Density Index, or RDI (Reineke, 1933). The calibration for both species of the 163 self-thinning boundaries needed for the RDI calculation followed Charru et al. (2012) 164 165 based on data from the National Forest Inventory for the northern half of France. In pure stands, the RDI proportion of the target species was 100%. In mixed stands, the RDI of 166 the companion species was set between 40 and 80% to ensure that the sampled trees from 167 pure and mixed stands had contrasted mixing rates. 168

- Tree size: this reflects the hierarchy in tree diameter between individual trees, related to 169 the social status within the stand. We distinguished three tree size classes in our study: 170 small trees, medium trees and large trees. Based on 2012 or 2013 tree diameters, the trees 171 at each site were assigned to one of these classes. Understorey trees were excluded. For 172 the selection process, we defined four quantiles from the diameter distribution for each 173 species: 28% quantile, 38% quantile, 61% quantile and 71% quantile to obtain three 174 intervals clearly separated. Small trees of a given species were sampled in the interval 175 [minimum diameter; 28% quantile], medium trees were sampled in the interval [38% 176 quantile; 61% quantile] and large trees were sampled in the interval [71% quantile; 177

maximum diameter]. However, individual tree-level dynamics may have changed during the growing process due to modifications in the local environment or to genetics, and tree size may also have changed. To refine the influence of the hierarchy on the individuals' responses to each drought event, we redefined the tree size classes for each drought event studied here (see section 2.4 for the selection of the drought events) based on three relative diameter classes (smallest, intermediate, largest) reconstructed from tree ring analyses.

The local density was estimated using the RDI. It was set between 0.5 and 0.75 to ensure similar competition conditions among sample trees. We visually checked the general form of the candidate trees to ensure that the selected trees were representative of the stand population.

The final sample consisted of 108 trees from the two species, the two stand composition types (pure or mixed) and the three tree size classes; three tree replicates per plot were included (Table 2). In autumn 2012 and 2013, the selected trees were felled and a 10cm thick cross section was cut 1.30m above the ground, or as close as possible to this level when defects (branches, damage or sap pockets) were present.

Table 2. Mean age and mean diameter at 1.30m for each species, stand composition type and
tree size class. Age and diameter standard deviation are indicated in parentheses. Nine trees
were sampled for each species, stand composition and size. S: small ; M: medium ; L: large.

Species	Sessile oak						Scots pine					
Stand		Pure		Mixed			Pure			Mixed		
Size	S	М	L	S	М	L	S	М	L	S	М	L
Age (years)	63.0 (8.8)	65.6 (3.8)	65.9 (3.8)	65.1 (7.8)	68.7 (9.0)	72.0 (8.6)	55.0 (4.0)	56.0 (4.0)	56.2 (5.0)	57.6 (7.8)	61.8 (8.4)	68.0 (7.6)
Diameter	11.6	17.6	22.1	11.6	17.8	24	21.5	27.6	30.9	18.6	26.8	33.1
(<i>cm</i>)	(1.5)	(1.9)	(2.2)	(1.8)	(2.4)	(3.6)	(2.0)	(1.1)	(3.1)	(2.8)	(1.1)	(2.8)

197 2.3. Tree-ring analyses

We used the WinDendro software (Regent, 2005) to measure tree-ring widths from pith to 198 bark along two radii along a systematic north-south axis. The east-west axis was not used to 199 avoid reaction wood or possible ovalization related to the prevailing east-west winds in this 200 region. A visual crossdating was performed for known reference dates: - the 1976 drought 201 202 and the Diprion pini attack on pine between 1981 and 1986 (Perot et al., 2013). We used a DigiMicro 2.0 Scale USB camera (Mikroskop Digital Kamera, DNT), an SMZ745 wen 203 (Nikon) and an Eclipse E200 microscope (Nikon) to help us clarify the position of a few tree 204 rings close to the pith. Statistical crossdating was performed with the COFECHA software 205 (Grissino-Mayer, 2001). 206

The following statistics from the COFECHA software output (see Appendix B for detailed 207 208 result for each sampled tree) were used to verify the quality of the tree-ring series (Grissino-Mayer, 2001). Series intercorrelation (SI) is a measure of the strength of the signal common 209 to all the trees sampled. Most chronologies have values between 0.550 and 0.750. In our 210 sample, SI was 0.577 for oak and 0.631 for pine. These values indicate a good common signal 211 among the individuals sampled. The Expressed Population Signal (EPS) ensures that the trees 212 sampled accurately represent a hypothetical population. This is verified when EPS > 0.85213 (Wigley et al., 1984). This condition was verified in our study with an EPS of 0.96 for sessile 214 oak, and 0.98 for Scots pine. 215

The analysis was restricted to the 1970-2013 period, which corresponds to the extent of the meteorological data available for the study sites. Moreover, tree growth dynamics are usually different during the juvenile stage and the adult and mature stages. The choice of the 1970-2013 period ensured that the sampled trees were not in the juvenile stage (Figure 2). Two radial growth variables were calculated. Ring width (RW) per year was calculated as the average ring width over the two radii along the north-south axis. Tree basal area increment (BAI) was calculated per year as follows:

$$BAI_n = (d_n^2 - d_{n-1}^2) \times \pi/4$$

where d_n is tree diameter for year *n*. d_n was calculated from the cumulative ring widths of the tree ring series for each year.

225 2.4. Climatic data and drought index

Daily minimum, maximum and average temperature and precipitation for the last 44 years 226 (1969-2013) were collected from the Irstea weather station (France, 4750' N, 244' E) located 227 twenty kilometers from the study forest. Drought events were identified based on the SPEI 228 (Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index) drought index (Vicente-Serrano et al., 229 2010) calculated with the spei CRAN package. This index has the advantage of incorporating 230 the effects of temperature on drought and considering different time scales indicative of the 231 chronic, long-term or exceptional character of each drought event and can be used to estimate 232 changes in the dynamics and/or intensity of drought events over previous decades. Monthly 233 SPEI is a standardized variable (see Vicente-Serrano et al. (2010) for details of the 234 standardization). It is based on the degree of water surplus or deficit, defined as the difference 235 between the monthly precipitation and the monthly Thornthwaite potential evapotranspiration 236 (Thornthwaite, 1948). In this study, the SPEI for each year was calculated for the growing 237 season spanning seven months from April to October. At this time scale, there is a fairly good 238 239 correlation between the growth variables (RW for oak and BAI for pine, results not shown) and the SPEI values. When SPEI was under the value of -1, the year was considered a severe 240 drought year (Potop et al., 2014). Following this criterion, the selected drought events in our 241 study were: 1976, 2006, 2010 and the period 1990-1991-1992 (Figure 1). We added the year 242

2003 since a short but intense summer drought event occurred then that has been largely
studied as an important drought event in Europe (Ciais *et al.*, 2005; Pichler and Oberhuber,
2007; van der Werf *et al.*, 2007; Lebourgeois *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, the SPEI during the
summer months of 2003 was considerably below the threshold of -1, with a value of -2.4.

Figure 1. SPEI computed for the growing season (April to October) from 1970 to 2013. The selected drought events are indicated by a bold circle. The horizontal dotted line indicates the threshold of -1 below which a drought was considered severe. The 1981 to 1986 period (hatched zone) was removed from our analysis because of severe pine defoliation by *Diprion pini*.



253 2.5. Resistance, recovery and resilience indices

We used the resistance, recovery and resilience indices defined by Lloret *et al.* (2011) to quantify individual tree responses to the drought events we selected. We hypothesized that pre-disturbance period reflect the expected growth missing during the year of the disturbance. To support this hypothesis, the growth variables on which the indices are based must not show any strong temporal trend, so we used RW for sessile oak and BAI for Scots pine (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Raw tree-ring growth series for sessile oak and Scots pine according to tree age. Each tree-ring series is printed in grey. The bold line represents the series mean averaged for all trees. (a) for sessile oak; the growth variable presented is RW, (b) for Scots pine: the growth variable presented is BAI. The vertical dotted line indicates the age in 1976 (oldest drought studied here) of the youngest tree sampled.



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The absence of strong age-related trends (excluding the juvenile period) on these two growth variables allowed us to calculate the response indices with raw data (non-transformed or standardized data). Since comparing indices based on two different growth variables could be misleading when interpreting the species responses (see section 2.6 for the statistical models), we quantified the error resulting from using BAI for Scots pine for each drought event. We included a multiplying factor *R* to link the index calculated with BAI with the one calculated with RW (see Appendix A for further details):

$$Index_{BAI} = Index_{RW} \times R$$

For the five drought events selected, the relative bias 1 - R induced by the use of BAI for Scots pine is much smaller (around 4-9%) than the differences between the oak and pine responses (between 15-36%) for the same drought events (Appendix A, Figure A 1). The use of different growth indices for the two species does not influence the direction of the results obtained for the comparison of the two species (see Appendix A).

Growth during pre-and post-disturbance periods (PreDr and PostDr) was calculated as the 279 average growth in the 3 years respectively before and after disturbance. There is a trade-off 280 281 between retaining a long enough period to ensure a good estimation of the mean growth before and after the drought event and the risk of an overlap between the pre- or post-282 disturbance period and adjacent drought events. Growth during disturbance Dr is the growth 283 observed the year of the drought event (or the average growth over the period of the 284 disturbance in the case of a drought spanning several years, *i.e.* 1990 to 1992). Resistance, 285 286 recovery and resilience are defined as follows (Figure 3):

287 - Resistance = Dr/PreDr: the individuals' ability to withstand harsh conditions
288 (e.g. drought).

289	-	Recovery = $PostDr/Dr$: the individuals' ability to restore a level of growth after
290		disturbance relative to the damage during the disturbance.

- Resilience = *PostDr/PreDr*: the ability of an individual to regain post disturbance growth similar to pre-disturbance growth.

Figure 3. Resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices in a hypothetical case, adapted from Lloret *et al.* (2011). Resistance (solid line) and resilience (dotted line) correspond to the negative slopes, so the steeper the decline, the lower the resistance and resilience. Recovery (solid line) corresponds to the positive slope.



297

The post-disturbance period for 2003 and the pre-disturbance period for 2006 overlap. We therefore decided to use the 2006 post-disturbance period to calculate the 2003 indices and the 2003 pre-disturbance period for the 2006 indices. This choice removes the immediate impact on growth of the 2003 drought event on individual tree responses to the 2006 drought. It should also be noted that resilience for the 2010 drought event is incomplete for the trees sampled in 2012 as only two years of data were available after the drought event to calculate the resilience index for these trees.

305 2.6. Statistical analyses

Our first question on species specific response to drought was tested for each drought event. We used linear mixed models where response indices (transformed with the natural logarithm when necessary to meet the assumptions of normality of the residuals) were dependent variables and species (fixed factor) and plot (random factor) were explanatory variables. The linear mixed model for a given drought event was as follows, with sessile oak as the reference:

$$I_{iik} = m + m_i + E_i + \varepsilon_{iik}$$

where I_{ijk} is one of the three indices calculated for a tree k of a species j in plot i, m is the intercept representing the sessile oak average for the relevant index and year; m_i is the plot random effect; E_j is the species effect (*i.e.* the difference for the relevant index and year between Scots pine and the reference – sessile oak) and ε_{ijk} are the residuals of the model. For each drought event, the species effect was removed in the model if it was found to be not significant.

We also used linear mixed models to answer our second and third questions on stand 318 composition and tree size effects on individual's performance during drought events for each 319 species and each drought event. The dependent variables were the indices of response to 320 drought (log-transformed when necessary). The explanatory variables were stand composition 321 (mixed or pure, fixed effect), tree size (large, medium and small, fixed effect) and plot 322 (random effect). The full linear mixed model used to test the effects of composition and tree 323 size for a given drought event and one species was as follows, with large trees growing in 324 pure stands as the reference: 325

$$I_{ijkl} = m + m_i + C_j + S_k + CS_{jk} + \varepsilon_{ijkl}$$

where I_{ijkl} is one of the three indices calculated for a tree *l* belonging to a size *k* in 326 composition *j* for the plot *i*, *m* is the intercept representing the reference (large trees growing 327 in pure stands) average for the relevant index and year; m_i is the plot random effect; C is the 328 composition effect (*i.e.* the difference between the reference - pure - and mixed stands); S 329 330 corresponds to the tree size parameter (*i.e.* the difference between the reference - large - andeach of the other two size classes); CS is the interaction between composition and size; and 331 ε_{ijkl} are the residuals of the model. For each model, variables which were found to be not 332 significant were removed to improve the estimations of the significant variables. The 333 interaction parameter CS was consequently removed from all models as it was never 334 335 significant. All statistical analyses were performed with the *nlme* package of the R statistical software (R Development Core Team, 2014). The significance threshold was set at 0.05. 336

337 **3. Results**

Growth decreased during the drought events for both sessile oak and Scots pine as resistance
values were less than 1 in average (Table 3). Mean index values showed relatively high levels
of resistance to drought and resilience for both species (Table 3).

Table 3. Mean values (and standard deviation s.d.) of the resistance, recovery and resilienceindices. Mean values are calculated for each species over the five selected drought events.

	Resistance Rt		Recov	ery Rc	Resilience Rs		
	Oak	Pine	Oak	Pine	Oak	Pine	
Mean	0.759	0.787	1.361	1.366	0.994	0.985	
s.d.	0.218	0.274	0.606	0.765	0.434	0.457	

343	3.1.	Comparison	between the tw	wo species' res	ponse to drought events

The species effect was significant for some drought events, and differs depending on the index. Pine was more resistant than oak for 1990-1992 and 2010 droughts and more resilient

for the 1990-1992 drought only. Oak was more resistant for the 2003 and 2006 droughts,

recovered better after the 2010 drought (Table 4Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.).

Table 4. Results from the linear mixed models for species effect on resistance Rt, recovery Rc 348 and resilience Rs indices for the five selected drought events. For each model, when the 349 "species" variable was not significant, we chose to remove it completely. Parameters are 350 estimated with sessile oak as the reference. *In* below a drought event indicates that logarithm 351 transformation of the response variable was used to fit the model. The estimates and standard 352 353 deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed when the logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading indicates the direction of the difference between 354 Scots pine and the reference, *i.e.* sessile oak; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: 355 negative difference. 356

		1976	1990-1992	2003	2006	2010
Rt			ln		ln	ln
	Estimation	0.668	-0.405	0.951	-0.307	-0.305
Intercept	s.d.	0.018	0.038	0.034	0.057	0.043
	p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Estimation		0.257	-0.155	-0.345	0.275
Scots pine	s.d.		0.054	0.041	0.066	0.051
	p-value		< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
Rc		ln	ln	ln	ln	ln
	Estimation	0.514	0.336	0.123	0.320	-0.272
Intercept	s.d.	0.073	0.035	0.038	0.057	0.066
	p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.002	< 0.001	< 0.001
	Estimation				0.235	-0.172
Scots pine	s.d.				0.059	0.051
	p-value				< 0.001	< 0.001
Rs		ln	ln	ln	ln	ln
	Estimation	0.087	-0.091	-0.046	-0.046	-0.526
Intercept	s.d.	0.056	0.061	0.038	0.038	0.076
1	p-value	0.126	0.134	0.236	0.236	< 0.001
	Estimation		0.287			
Scots pine	s.d.		0.074			
	p-value		< 0.001			

358 3.2. Effects of stand composition on species responses to drought events

- 359 The effect of stand composition (pure or mixed stands) on sessile oak or Scots pine responses
- 360 was never significant for the selected drought events and was thus removed from all models

5,

361 (Table

Table 6. Results from the linear mixed models for stand composition and tree size effects on 362 363 resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices of Scots pine for the five selected drought events. Parameters are estimated with pure stands and large trees as the references. *In* below a 364 drought event indicates that logarithm transformation of the response variable was used to fit 365 the model. Estimates and standard deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed when the 366 logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading indicates the 367 direction of the difference between each factor level and the references, *i.e.* large trees and 368 pure stands; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: negative difference. 369

370).

371 3.3. Effects of tree size on species responses to drought events

372 3.3.1. Sessile oak

The effect of the tree size on the sessile oak response to drought was variable depending on the year and the index considered. In 2003, 2006 and 2010, small trees showed significantly lower resistance (2003) or recovery (2006, 2010) than did large trees. The opposite result was found for resistance for the 1990-1992 drought event (Table 5,

Figure 4). There was no effect of tree size on sessile oak resilience for any of the five droughtevents considered.

379 3.3.2. Scots pine

380 Several significant results were found. The general trend for Scots pine indicates better 381 resistance and resilience among small individuals than among large individuals (

Table 6. Results from the linear mixed models for stand composition and tree size effects on 382 resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices of Scots pine for the five selected drought 383 events. Parameters are estimated with pure stands and large trees as the references. *In* below a 384 drought event indicates that logarithm transformation of the response variable was used to fit 385 the model. Estimates and standard deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed when the 386 logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading indicates the 387 388 direction of the difference between each factor level and the references, *i.e.* large trees and pure stands; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: negative difference. 389

390 , Figure 5). There were no significant effects of stand composition or tree size for some

391 indices and drought events (

Table 6. Results from the linear mixed models for stand composition and tree size effects on 392 resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices of Scots pine for the five selected drought 393 events. Parameters are estimated with pure stands and large trees as the references. *In* below a 394 drought event indicates that logarithm transformation of the response variable was used to fit 395 the model. Estimates and standard deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed when the 396 397 logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading indicates the direction of the difference between each factor level and the references, *i.e.* large trees and 398 pure stands; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: negative difference. 399

400).

Table 5. Results from the linear mixed models for stand composition and tree size effects on 401 resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices of sessile oak for the five selected 402 drought events. Parameters are estimated with pure stands and large trees as the references. In 403 below a drought event indicates that logarithm transformation of the response variable was 404 used to fit the model. Estimates and standard deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed 405 when the logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading 406 indicates the direction of the difference between each factor level and the references, *i.e.* large 407 trees and pure stands; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: negative difference. 408

			1976	1990- 1992	2003	2006	2010
Rt				ln			ln
		Estimates	0.654	-0.537	1.041	0.732	-0.304
Intercept		s.d.	0.022	0.059	0.063	0.023	0.062
1		p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
_		p-value					
		Estimates		0.155	-0.121		
	Medium	s.d.		0.071	0.063		
Sizo		p-value		0.034	0.059		
Size		Estimates		0.241	-0.130		
	Small	s.d.		0.071	0.063		
		p-value		0.001	0.043		
Rc			ln		ln		
		Estimates	0.624	1.443	0.086	1.572	0.850
Intercept		s.d.	0.090	0.071	0.062	0.079	0.064
1		p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.175	< 0.001	< 0.001
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
1		p-value					
		Estimates				-0.262	-0.068
	Medium	s.d.				0.090	0.043
Sizo		p-value				0.005	0.117
Size		Estimates				-0.129	-0.125
	Small	s.d.				0.090	0.043
		p-value				0.157	0.005
Rs			ln	ln			ln
		Estimates	0.169	-0.070	1.052	1.052	-0.573
Intercept		s.d.	0.010	0.062	0.063	0.063	0.106
		p-value	0.098	0.271	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
-		p-value					
C :	Madium	Estimates					
5126	wieuwin	s.d.					

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	p-value	
	Estimates	
Small	s.d.	
	p-value	

Table 6. Results from the linear mixed models for stand composition and tree size effects on 410 resistance Rt, recovery Rc and resilience Rs indices of Scots pine for the five selected drought 411 events. Parameters are estimated with pure stands and large trees as the references. *In* below a 412 drought event indicates that logarithm transformation of the response variable was used to fit 413 the model. Estimates and standard deviations (s.d.) were not back transformed when the 414 415 logarithm was applied. Significant results are shown in bold characters. Shading indicates the direction of the difference between each factor level and the references, *i.e.* large trees and 416 pure stands; dark grey: positive difference; light grey: negative difference. 417

			1976	1990- 1992	2003	2006	2010
Rt				ln			ln
		Estimates	0.607	-0.148	0.790	0.481	-0.029
Intercept		s.d.	0.045	0.058	0.022	0.059	0.032
-		p-value	< 0.001	0.014	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.367
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
		p-value					
		Estimates	0.088			0.105	
	Medium	s.d.	0.052			0.065	
Size		p-value	0.095			0.112	
Size		Estimates	0.128			0.137	
	Small	s.d.	0.052		_	0.065	
		p-value	0.017		_	0.041	
Rc			ln	ln			ln
		Estimates	0.425	0.334	1.220	1.801	-0.450
Intercept		s.d.	0.085	0.044	0.058	0.126	0.091
1		p-value	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	<0.001	< 0.001
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
-		p-value					
		Estimates					
	Medium	s.d.					
Sizo		p-value					
5126		Estimates					
	Small	s.d.					
		p-value					
Rs			ln	ln	ln	ln	ln
		Estimates	-0.220	0.186	-0.288	-0.253	-0.479
Intercept		s.d.	0.070	0.092	0.080	0.081	0.100
1		p-value	0.003	0.049	0.001	0.003	< 0.001
		Estimates					
Composition	Mixed	s.d.					
		p-value					

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			Estimates	0.323	().219	0.149
		Medium	s.d.	0.089		0.113	0.115
	Size		p-value	< 0.001	().059	0.203
	SILC		Estimates	0.337	().310	0.275
		Small	s.d.	0.089		0.113	0.115
			p-value	< 0.001	().009	0.021
418							

Figure 4. Difference between the resistance or resilience index value for large sessile oak trees and the values for the other tree size classes for each drought event. For each year and tree size, the segments and stars indicate the level of significance of the difference between large Scots pine trees and other trees from the models. The models were re-run with the medium size as the reference to test the difference between this size and the small size. *: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001.; ns: not significant.



Figure 5. Difference between the resistance or resilience index value for large Scots pine treesand the values for the other tree size classes for each drought event. For each year and tree

428 size, the segments and stars indicate the level of significance of the difference between large 429 Scots pine trees and other trees from the models. The models were re-run with the medium 430 size as the reference to test the difference between this size and the small size. *: p < 0.05; **: 431 p < 0.01; ***: p < 0.001.; ns: not significant.



432

433 **4. Discussion**

As expected, both species reduced their radial growth during drought events. When drought
occurs, photosynthesis is reduced leading to less carbon available for functions such as radial
growth which in turn decreases (Chaves *et al.*, 2003; Palacio *et al.*, 2014).

Resistance and resilience to drought differed between oak and pine, as expected (Table 4),
though the mean values for each species were close to each other (Table 3). Stand
composition had no effect on the resistance indices of the species studied (Table 5, Table 6).
However, tree size did have an effect in some cases. The influence of tree size was

pronounced and unidirectional for resistance and resilience in Scots pine for several drought
events. Results for sessile oak show that the size effect varied between drought events or
indices.

444 4.1. Oak and pine respond differently to drought events

We first showed that sessile oak and Scots pine responded differently to the five drought 445 events studied. Pine was more resistant during the 1990-1992 drought period and the 2010 446 drought while oak was more resistant during the 2003 and 2006 droughts. The drought events 447 studied here occurred at different periods during the growing season and this could have 448 449 influenced the responses of the two species. Indeed, several studies have shown that pine and oak species have different growth dynamics during the growing season (Weber et al., 2007; 450 Eilmann et al., 2009; Michelot et al., 2012b). Complementary analyses of the SPEI over the 451 452 spring (March to May) and summer months (June to August) separately revealed different types of drought (Figure 6). 453

Figure 6. SPEI computed for spring (April to June) and for summer (July to August) from 1970 to 2013. The selected drought events are indicated by a bold circle. The horizontal dotted line indicates the threshold of -1 below which a drought was considered severe. The 1981 to 1986 period (hatched zone) was removed from our analysis because of severe pine defoliation by *Diprion pini*.



The 1976 drought was global throughout the whole growing season. The 1990-1992 and 2010 droughts occurred in the spring while the 2003 and 2006 droughts were intense summer droughts. Our results suggest that Scots pine was more resistant during spring droughts than sessile oak, and that sessile oak was more resistant during summer droughts (Table 4). The 1976 drought, which lasted through spring and summer, should have affected both species; our results confirm this (we found no difference between the two species for any index, Table 4**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**). Their differing growth dynamics, particularly

how the two species form intra-annual wood, could explain this time-dependent resistance. 467 468 Zweifel et al. (2006) showed that pubescent oak (Quercus pubescens) starts radial growth about one month before leaf expansion, achieving almost half of the annual radial increment 469 by the time the leaves reach full expansion at the end of spring. Furthermore, oak species have 470 been found to be more sensitive to spring conditions, and particularly to water availability 471 during spring, than to summer conditions and droughts (van der Werf et al., 2007; Weber et 472 al., 2007; Eilmann et al., 2009; Zang et al., 2012; Morán-López et al., 2014). Earlywood vessels 473 in oak are formed before and during budburst using stored reserves from the previous growing 474 season (Corcuera et al., 2004). These newly formed vessels are wide allowing such ring-475 476 porous species to transport more water during early growing season but at the expense of increased embolism risk. They rapidly become embolized as conditions become more stressful 477 during the growing season (Cochard and Tyree, 1990). During spring droughts, the oak's 478 479 newly formed vessels are exposed to the risk of cavitation leading to water deficit and reduced cell enlargement. Water stress during spring is thus the most important factor 480 481 controlling radial growth for oak (Tardif and Conciatori, 2006). This phenomenon constrains ring width despite the potential activation of drought avoidance mechanisms (Eilmann et al., 482 2009). In contrast, summer drought would be of less consequence on oak radial growth as the 483 radial increment would have mainly occurred during the months preceding the drought. 484 However, a summer drought still reduces photosynthesic activity for oak through stomatal 485 closure, which prevents further accumulation of reserves for the following year's growth 486 (Chaves et al., 2003). For Scots pine, on the other hand, needles only appear during the 487 summer and the tree has achieved a mere fourth of its annual radial increment by the time 488 needles reach full expansion (Zweifel et al., 2006). This species' radial growth dynamics, 489 490 which have been extensively studied in Europe, show a stronger dependency on conditions at the end of spring and during the summer months (Weber et al., 2007; Eilmann et al., 2009; 491

Eilmann *et al.*, 2011; Zang *et al.*, 2012; Taeger *et al.*, 2013). Spring droughts constrain pine growth and might lead to the cavitation of some xylem tracheids. However, pine can continue its radial growth when the conditions become better after the spring drought subsides, resulting in wider ring widths during spring drought years than for oak. Summer droughts, on the other hand, quite strongly affect pine growth because they hamper needle formation and reduce cell enlargement, consequently reducing the radial increment for that year, in contrast to oak.

Results for recovery were less pronounced than for resistance: for resistance, four out of five 499 drought events showed significant differences between the two species while only two out of 500 501 five drought events showed significant differences for recovery (Table 4). However, assuming that both resistance to and recovery from drought events depend on the amount of carbon 502 reserves available, a compromise might be established between these two indices (Galiano et 503 504 al., 2011; Lloret et al., 2011). As mentioned before, ring widths for oak show a strong relationship with climatic conditions of the previous year, even when the current year's 505 506 conditions are favorable (Zweifel et al., 2006; van der Werf et al., 2007; Eilmann et al., 2009; 507 Michelot et al., 2012b). A summer drought does not constrain oak ring width but does constrain its photosynthetic activity, thus reducing the amount of reserves stored for the 508 establishment of the following year's tree ring. This was observed for 2004, following the 509 510 2003 drought, for some individuals in our study (data not shown) and for 2007, following the 2006 drought (van der Werf et al., 2007). The longer growing season for Scots pine (Michelot 511 et al., 2012b) as well as its ability to maintain photosynthesis throughout autumn and winter 512 513 thanks to its evergreen leaves limit its dependence on the previous year's accumulated reserves for recovery after a drought event (Gruber et al., 2012). This compromise between 514 515 resistance and recovery explains that in 2006 (summer drought) and 2010 (spring drought), we found opposite results for resistance and resilience (Table 4). However, this idea of a 516

potential compromise between resistance and recovery based on the amount of carbonreserves available needs further investigation.

519 4.2. Stand composition has no effect on resistance and resilience

Neither pine nor oak responses to the selected drought events depended on stand composition
(pure or mixed) (Table 5). This result was unexpected as results in the literature usually
present various effects of species mixtures in forests in case of biotic and abiotic disturbances,
whether they present benefits or drawbacks (Knoke *et al.*, 2008; Maestre *et al.*, 2009; Felton *et al.*, 2010; Lebourgeois *et al.*, 2013; Perot *et al.*, 2013; Pretzsch *et al.*, 2013).

Assuming equivalent stand density, lower growth in mixed stands associated to drought 525 episodes would indicate stronger between-species competition (Grossiord et al., 2014) than 526 within-population competence. The absence of this pattern in our results indicates that 527 528 drought conditions did not increase between-species competition, suggesting that water acquisition for each species was not disrupted by the presence of the other species. The 529 absence of any benefits (higher growth) of the mixed stands also suggests the absence of any 530 complementarity process (through root stratification for example e. g. Pretzsch et al. (2013)) 531 in our study sites during drought, which might be related to the type of soil encountered in the 532 study plots prohibiting deep root extension (Table 1). 533

Moreover, the trees sampled in this study had all necessarily survived the selected drought 534 events. Trees which died during these drought events might have had an impact at the stand 535 536 level on the stand composition effect. A long-term survey including mortality is needed to 537 more precisely define the effects of stand composition on individuals' response to drought. Lastly, the stand composition effect might be reflected in structural characteristics other than 538 539 ring widths. There is a growing number of studies focusing on other wood characteristics such as the relative widths of earlywood and latewood, the number and size of vessels, and ring 540 density. These parameters would add a degree of precision to the understanding of the 541

542	processes governing tree growth and cambial activity (Martinez-Vilalta and Pñol, 200	2;
543	Eilmann et al., 2009; Martín-Benito et al., 2013; Vieira et al., 2014).	
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544

545 4.3. The tree size effect on individual tree response to drought varies between species

- In *Pinus sylvestris* large trees were more sensitive than small trees to drought, while no clear
 trend was observed for *Quercus petraea* (Table 5, Table 6).
- 548

4.3.1. Small oak response seems better for older droughts than for recent droughts

The results obtained for sessile oak show varying effects of tree size depending on the 549 550 drought event and the index (Table 5, Figure 4). We observed a better response of small trees 551 for the 1990-1992 drought (resistance), and the oppposite for the 2003 (resistance), and 2010 droughts (recovery) while medium-sized trees responded better in terms of recovery for the 552 553 2006 drought. Several hypotheses could be made to explain these results. As it has been suggested before, the type of drought could play a major role in shaping trees' responses to 554 such disturbances. The 1990-1992 drought and the 2003 drought have very different 555 characteristics: the first one was a drought spanning several years and more related to water 556 stress than temperature stress while the second one was very short and intense and more 557 558 related to temperature stress. The 2003, 2006 and 2010 droughts were frequent, happening 559 only a few years apart from each other while the 1990-1992 drought happened 15 years after the previous drought which was in 1976. Small and large trees could reasonably respond 560 561 differently to these varying characteristics of droughts, explaining the results we observed in our study. Processes related to drought hardening for example in small trees as suggested by 562 Martín-Benito et al. (2008) might confer them an advantage while large trees might recover 563 564 faster in the favorable years following a drought (Martín-Benito et al., 2008; Martínez-Vilalta et al., 2012). Moreover, we could imagine that oaks could respond differently to droughts as 565

they grow older (as suggested by Lloret et al. (2011) and Martínez-Vilalta et al. (2012) for pine species) leading to a potential change in the direction of the individual tree response to different drought effects, as we observed between the 1990-1992 drought and the following droughts. Unfortunately, very few references could be found and our results could not support one hypothesis more than another.

571

4.3.2. Small pines' response to drought is better than large pines

The results for Scots pine are unambiguous: when tree size is significant, trees of lower size 572 (e. g. medium or small) have better responses to drought than large trees in terms of 573 resistance, and above all, resilience (Table 6, Figure 5). It can be noted that these differences 574 are observed only for summer droughts (no tree size effect for the 1990-1992 and 2010 spring 575 droughts). In our stands, the variability of Scots pine diameters is associated with a 576 577 stratification of tree crowns (through different crown transparency and expansion). Thus, microsite climatic conditions (humidity, temperature or solar radiation) might be kept 578 relatively favorable for small trees, providing them with better growing conditions despite the 579 580 overall drought conditions (Aussenac, 2000). Small trees may also be drought-hardened due to their position in the stand. Their need for carbon, nutrients and water would thus be 581 reduced while their efficiency to use these resources might be enhanced. These drought-582 hardening adaptations (Martín-Benito et al., 2008) as well as the micro-climatic conditions 583 could enable the small trees to sustain growth while conditions are too harsh for large trees 584 with high resource and maintenance needs as found in the literature (Martín-Benito et al., 585 586 2008; Marúnez-Vilalta et al., 2012; Zang et al., 2012).

However, other results in the literature contradict our results, showing that small trees are more affected by drought events than large trees (Orwig and Abrams, 1997; Pichler and Oberhuber, 2007) due to a shallower root system or increased intraspecific competition

590 (Martín-Benito *et al.*, 2008; Zang *et al.*, 2012), or no tree size effect at all (Mérian and
591 Lebourgeois, 2011).

Variability in the definition and magnitude of the tree size classes analyzed and the indices 592 used in other studies and in ours may play a role in these conflicting results. Different soil and 593 climatic conditions at each study site can also modify the response thresholds of individual 594 595 trees. Finally, our study shows that in the same environmental context, the tree size effect varies according to the species considered (Lebourgeois *et al.*, 2014), though we have yet to 596 provide an explanation for this variation. Nevertheless, it is important to take into account the 597 598 tree size classes within a stand in the study of the responses to climatic and/or biotic disturbances, as some previous studies have noted (Orwig and Abrams, 1997; Martín-Benito et 599 600 al., 2008; Mérian and Lebourgeois, 2011; Zang et al., 2012; Eilmann et al., 2013).

601 5. Conclusion

602 Our study confirms the differing responses of sessile oak and Scots pine to several specific drought events. Our results suggest that summer and spring droughts do not have the same 603 impact on different species, though the limited number of drought events in our data did not 604 605 enable us to test this hypothesis. The two species' contrasted growth dynamics and timing may lead to different consequences from a spring or a summer drought. Specific responses to 606 different types of drought should be considered in future studies. Our results indicated no 607 608 adverse or beneficial effects of mixture on the two species' resistance, resilience and recovery to drought. Tree size significantly affected both species, though the direction of this effect 609 was not clear in sessile oak while it was for Scots pine, showing a better response of small 610 trees to drought events. We hypothesize that intra-specific facilitation and/or physiological 611 adaptations confer an advantage to small individuals during periods of water stress, though 612 results from the literature are contradictory. The long-term monitoring of forest stands makes 613 it possible to take into consideration mortality events following disturbances; a severe drought 614

can speed up the mortality process for weak trees (Pedersen, 1998; Galiano *et al.*, 2010) but less so for strongly growing trees. Such experiments are in progress in the research unit where the OPTMix experimental site is located. Our study provides support for good resilience among surviving individuals of sessile oak and Scots pine in this lowland forest, which is facing climate change and increased drought frequency. This research is essential to adapt forest management strategies to changing conditions, while taking economic requirements into account.

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837 Appendices

A. Calculation of the relative bias in the index comparison between species

839 In the following equations, $d_{i,n}$ is the mean diameter at drought event *n* for the pre-drought,

840 $RW_{i,n}$ or $BAI_{i,n}$ is respectively the ring width or tree basal area increment at drought event *n*.

841 The *i* or *j* subscript defines for which period – drought, pre-drought or post-drought – the

842 variable is calculated depending on the relevant index.

843 The definition of BAI is as follows:

$$BAI_n = (d_n^2 - d_{n-1}^2) \times \frac{\pi}{4}$$

844 which can be simplified as:

$$BAI_n = \pi \times RW_n \times (d_{n-1} + RW_n)$$

845 Therefore, we may write any index based on BAI as:

$$Index_{BAI,n} = \frac{BAI_{i,n}}{BAI_{j,n}} = \frac{\pi \times RW_{i,n} \times (d_{i,n-1} + RW_{i,n})}{\pi \times RW_{j,n} \times (d_{j,n-1} + RW_{j,n})}$$

846 Using the index based on RW, the previous equation can be written as:

$$Index_{BAI,n} = Index_{RW,n} \times \frac{(d_{i,n-1} + RW_{i,n})}{(d_{i,n-1} + RW_{i,n})}$$

847 Therefore, the error *R* for each index based on BAI is:

$$R_n = \frac{(d_{i,n-1} + RW_{i,n})}{(d_{j,n-1} + RW_{j,n})}$$

848 This error was calculated on the Scots pine data for each drought event. The relative bias

849 1 - R thus defined can be compared with the modeled difference between the species for each

850 index. When the difference between species was significant, the relative bias was largely

under the modeled difference, as is shown in Figure A 1 for the resistance index.

Figure A 1. Relative bias in the comparison between oak RW and pine BAI. The modeled difference in resistance to drought between oak and pine responses are plotted in dotted lines for the drought events for which the species effect was significant. These dotted lines are far beyond the mean relative bias, showing that the results we obtained are not confounded with the error induced by using two different growth variables to calculate the indices.



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859 B. COFECHA outputs for Scots pine and sessile oak tree-ring cross-validation

860 Mean sensitivities values were discarded as it has been shown not to be a good estimator of the characteristics of a time-series (Bunn *et al.*,

861 2013).

Table B 1. Selected COFECHA output for Scots pine individual tree series showing descriptive information on each individual (site, plot, subplot, first year and last year of the measured tree rings, cumulative number of years). The statistics calculated by COFECHA are shown in the following columns: correlation with master series (computed from the 54 individual series), the mean and maximum measurement (tree-ring

widths) along with the standard deviation (s.d.) associated and the autocorrelation of each series.

Site	Plot	Subplot	Individual	First year	Last year	Years	Correlation with Master Series	Mean	Max	s.d.	Autocorrelation
2	O200	2	1	1952	2012	61	0.768	1.84	6.31	1.244	0.802
2	O200	2	2	1950	2012	63	0.714	2.38	8.82	1.87	0.888
2	O200	2	3	1955	2012	58	0.726	1.86	5.54	1.292	0.834
2	O200	2	4	1957	2012	56	0.714	2.32	9.58	2.064	0.736
2	O200	3	5	1952	2012	61	0.739	1.79	4.12	0.769	0.78
2	O200	3	6	1951	2012	62	0.628	2.2	6.48	1.437	0.913
2	O200	3	7	1950	2012	63	0.722	2.17	8.08	1.67	0.832
2	O200	3	8	1950	2012	63	0.665	2.38	7.04	1.569	0.875
2	O200	3	9	1951	2012	62	0.69	2.32	6.23	1.074	0.772
2	O216	1	1	1955	2012	58	0.825	2.69	6.42	1.446	0.744
2	O216	1	2	1958	2012	55	0.736	1.75	4.49	0.866	0.636
2	O216	1	3	1952	2012	61	0.809	2.69	8.92	2.201	0.86
2	O216	1	4	1957	2012	56	0.791	2.77	7.11	1.559	0.746
2	O216	1	5	1960	2012	53	0.731	2.52	10.17	1.519	0.589
2	O216	2	6	1959	2012	54	0.722	1.53	5.1	1.191	0.875
2	O216	3	7	1959	2012	54	0.584	2.29	6.82	1.058	0.707

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2	O216	3	8	1963	2012	50	0.714	4 2.64	6.28	1.168	0.592
2	O216	3	9	1960	2012	53	0.734	4 1.9	8.47	1.298	0.554
3	0333	1	1	1961	2013	53	0.733	3 2.57	5.28	1.254	0.756
3	0333	1	2	1963	2013	51	0.7	2.99	7.56	1.679	0.87
3	0333	1	3	1962	2013	52	0.747	2.22	6.68	1.269	0.84
3	0333	1	4	1961	2013	53	0.554	4 2.68	7.57	1.36	0.812
3	0333	1	5	1964	2013	50	0.45	5 1.71	3.86	0.82	0.788
3	0333	2	6	1962	2013	52	0.553	3 2.54	6.25	1.232	0.807
3	0333	2	7	1960	2013	54	0.640	5 2	5.16	1.013	0.776
3	0333	2	8	1960	2013	54	0.518	3 2.78	8.8	1.788	0.754
3	0333	2	9	1959	2013	55	0.760	5 2.41	6.41	1.486	0.848
3	0333	2	1	1944	2012	69	0.688	3 2.01	4.51	1.094	0.783
1	O57	3	2	1948	2012	65	0.763	3 2.2	4.88	0.961	0.697
1	O57	3	3	1944	2012	69	0.703	3 1.18	3.65	0.899	0.821
1	O57	3	4	1943	2012	70	0.702	2 1.96	5.64	1.334	0.854
1	O57	3	5	1951	2012	62	0.622	2 1.46	3.32	0.626	0.571
1	057	3	6	1943	2012	70	0.744	4 1.71	5.29	1.632	0.864
1	057	4	7	1942	2012	71	0.717	2.17	5.65	1.458	0.899
1	057	4	8	1941	2012	72	0.739	9 2.46	5.34	1.466	0.802
1	057	4	9	1943	2012	70	0.65	2.4	6.31	1.237	0.805
3	O598	1	1	1940	2013	74	0.730	5 1.82	3.93	0.701	0.519
3	O598	1	2	1966	2013	48	0.562	2 1.74	3.71	0.862	0.726
3	O598	1	3	1963	2013	51	0.74	4 2.1	4.74	1.148	0.832
3	O598	1	4	1940	2013	74	0.542	2 2.64	7.07	1.776	0.829
3	O598	1	5	1958	2013	56	0.550	5 1.37	2.34	0.533	0.552
3	O598	2	6	1940	2013	74	0.510	5 2.04	5.6	0.967	0.718
3	O598	2	7	1952	2013	62	0.704	4 2.07	5.08	0.933	0.31
3	O598	3	8	1955	2013	59	0.47	5 2.28	6.34	0.797	0.357
3	O598	3	9	1938	2013	76	0.517	2.21	4.76	0.897	0.756
1	O83	2	1	1960	2012	53	0.800	5 2.89	5.86	1.026	0.636

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1	O83	2	2	1961	2012	52	0.592	2.15	4.86	0.889	0.685
1	O83	2	3	1959	2012	54	0.546	2.58	5.39	0.855	0.714
1	O83	2	4	1956	2012	57	0.638	2.55	9.65	2.007	0.855
1	O83	2	5	1960	2012	53	0.701	1.87	4.55	0.936	0.69
1	O83	3	6	1959	2012	54	0.459	2.22	5.35	1.209	0.846
1	O83	3	7	1960	2012	53	0.432	3.41	7.2	1.254	0.737
1	O83	3	8	1961	2012	52	0.71	3.41	6.31	0.906	0.468
1	O83	3	9	1959	2012	54	0.465	2.71	7.57	1.464	0.866

Table B 2. Selected COFECHA output for sessile oak individual tree series showing descriptive information on each individual (site, plot, subplot, first year and last year of the measured tree rings, cumulative number of years). The statistics calculated by COFECHA are shown in the following columns: correlation with master series (computed from the 54 individual series), the mean and maximum measurement (tree-ring widths) along with the standard deviation (s.d.) associated and the autocorrelation of each series.

Site	Plot	Subplot	Individual	First year	Last year	Years	Correlation with Master Series	Mean	Max	s.d.	Autocorrelation
1	012	1	1	1944	2012	69	0.805	1.31	3.16	0.577	0.367
1	012	1	2	1942	2012	71	0.576	1.38	2.54	0.481	0.455
1	012	1	3	1944	2012	69	0.682	1.34	2.73	0.411	0.249
1	012	1	4	1941	2012	72	0.595	0.94	3.14	0.466	0.683
1	012	1	5	1941	2012	72	0.667	1.63	2.94	0.488	0.543
1	012	2	6	1942	2012	71	0.661	1.11	2.76	0.412	0.552
1	012	2	7	1943	2012	70	0.652	0.78	3.96	0.615	0.764
1	012	2	8	1943	2012	70	0.571	0.74	3.04	0.47	0.704
1	012	2	9	1946	2012	67	0.688	1.59	3.72	0.649	0.559
2	O214	2	1	1948	2012	65	0.509	1.32	3.73	0.616	0.363
2	O214	2	2	1954	2012	59	0.612	1.32	3.38	0.461	0.447
2	O214	2	3	1951	2012	62	0.541	0.75	2.24	0.372	0.422
2	O214	2	4	1955	2012	58	0.5	0.91	3.41	0.569	0.686
2	O214	2	5	1947	2012	66	0.769	1.43	3.78	0.604	0.462
2	O214	3	6	1950	2012	63	0.812	1.24	3.2	0.471	0.405
2	O214	3	7	1950	2012	63	0.767	1.76	3.88	0.737	0.609
2	O214	3	8	1953	2012	60	0.713	1.74	3.65	0.67	0.602
2	O214	3	9	1951	2012	62	0.628	0.93	2.47	0.494	0.479
2	O216	1	1	1957	2012	56	0.718	1.05	1.79	0.368	0.506
2	O216	1	2	1956	2012	57	0.75	1.31	2.93	0.456	0.513
2	O216	1	3	1958	2012	55	0.433	0.91	3.83	0.671	0.612

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2 O216	1	4	1952	2012	61	0.687	1.69	3.06	0.616	0.574
2 O216	1	5	1954	2012	59	0.724	1.75	2.86	0.607	0.583
2 O216	1	6	1958	2012	55	0.651	1.09	2.48	0.398	0.354
2 O216	2	7	1953	2012	60	0.608	1.38	3.35	0.64	0.653
2 O216	2	8	1950	2012	63	0.722	1.82	3.66	0.734	0.774
2 O216	2	9	1953	2012	60	0.708	1.2	2.61	0.517	0.62
1 O57	1	1	1938	2012	75	0.658	1.29	3.02	0.517	0.622
1 O57	2	2	1937	2012	76	0.46	1.04	2.69	0.507	0.724
1 O57	3	3	1944	2012	69	0.645	1.07	2.21	0.599	0.803
1 O57	3	4	1943	2012	70	0.584	0.95	2.1	0.514	0.626
1 O57	4	5	1940	2012	73	0.561	0.72	1.95	0.396	0.785
1 O57	4	6	1952	2012	61	0.718	1.49	3.85	0.749	0.517
1 O57	4	7	1937	2012	76	0.748	1.76	4.19	0.926	0.698
1 O57	4	8	1935	2012	78	0.75	1.67	2.99	0.694	0.763
1 O57	4	9	1937	2012	76	0.659	1.33	4.61	0.64	0.637
3 O593	2	1	1971	2013	43	0.866	1.57	3.13	0.441	0.352
3 O593	2	2	1950	2013	64	0.843	1.92	4.59	0.679	0.406
3 O593	2	3	1951	2013	63	0.556	1.4	3.09	0.601	0.597
3 O593	2	4	1948	2013	66	0.513	0.96	3.4	0.608	0.632
3 O593	2	5	1950	2013	64	0.596	1.64	3.14	0.543	0.577
3 O593	2	6	1948	2013	66	0.735	1.92	3.7	0.813	0.694
3 O593	3	7	1950	2013	64	0.752	1.76	4.26	0.673	0.516
3 O593	3	8	1950	2013	64	0.675	0.93	3.28	0.455	0.546
3 O593	3	9	1947	2013	67	0.708	1.45	3.46	0.54	0.54
3 O598	1	1	1933	2013	81	0.655	1.4	5.96	0.748	0.623
3 O598	1	2	1944	2013	70	0.235	0.73	1.74	0.412	0.628
3 O598	2	3	1942	2013	72	0.581	1.47	4.12	0.777	0.738
3 O598	2	4	1934	2013	80	0.301	1.26	2.08	0.328	0.491
3 O598	2	5	1937	2013	77	0.521	1.27	3.08	0.694	0.72
3 O598	2	6	1950	2013	64	0.37	0.73	1.64	0.422	0.634

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3 O598	3	7	1940	2013	74	0.184 0.84 2.89 0.646 0.872
3 O598	3	8	1940	2013	74	0.646 1.66 3.27 0.642 0.614
3 O598	3	9	1934	2013	80	0.59 1.95 3.87 0.687 0.695