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Additional Information

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4

5	Tarcísio J. G. Fernandes ^{a,1} ; Antonio D. Del Campo ^{a,*} ; Rafael Herrera ^{a,b} ; Antonio J. Molina ^c
6	^a Forest Science and Technology Group (Re-ForeST). Research Institute of Water and
7	Environmental Engineering (IIAMA). Universitat Politècnica de València. Camí de Vera s/n.
8	46022 Valencia, Spain
9	^b Centre of Ecology, Venezuelan Institute of Scientific Research (IVIC). Carretera
10	Panamericana, Km 11, Altos de Pipe. Caracas, Venezuela. potoy1@hotmail.com
11	^c Food and Agriculture Research and Technology (IRTA). Torre Marimon, Caldes de
12	Montbui, 08140. Spain. amolihe@gmail.com
13	¹ Present Address: Centre of Biological Sciences and Nature, Federal University of Acre,
14	Rodovia BR-364, Km 04, Rio Branco, 69915-900 Acre, Brazil. tjgfernandes@yahoo.com.br
15	* Corresponding Author: ancamga@upv.es
16	Abstract
17	In water-limited regions, adaptive management of forest and water relationships has been put
18	forward, to implement hydrology-oriented silviculture to reduce stand evapotranspiration and,
19	at the tree level, to improve growth and water use efficiency (WUE). The main goal of this
20	study was to evaluate the effect of thinning in the short and medium term on tree growth,

21 climate (drought) sensitivity, WUE performed using growth and sap flow measurements and

22 WUEi performed using δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O isotopes, in a typical semiarid forest. This approach

23 also evaluated the reliability of isotopes as indicators of the effects of adaptive forest 24 management. A stagnated Aleppo pine plantation was experimentally thinned at high intensity 25 (H98) in 1998 and at High (H), Medium (M) and Low (L) intensities in 2008, along with a 26 control (C). Substantial limitation of tree growth was observed in C. Thinning not only 27 increased growth, but also changed the tree growth-precipitation relationships, with C trees 28 depending more on precipitation than thinned trees did. WUEi after thinning was significantly 29 affected only in the medium term, with C trees being more efficient (94.4 µmolCO₂/molH2O) 30 than H98 trees (88.7), especially in dry spells (100.7). WUEi was found to increase when 31 precipitation decreased, regardless of the treatment. However, WUE increased sharply from C 32 (1.26 g biomass/L H2O) to H (3.20 g/L), showing a clear difference with WUEi observed in the same years. Thinning caused an increase in δ^{18} O in the short term, but no relationship was 33 34 found between δ^{18} O and tree water use. It can be concluded that forest management improved 35 WUE in spite of higher tree transpiration, but WUEi remained unchanged, probably due to an underestimate of photosynthetic capacity. The dual isotope (δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O) conceptual model 36 37 was not consistent with our experimental data. Thus, the question of whether stable isotopes 38 can be used as a tool for addressing the ecophysiological impacts of thinning remains open.

39 Keywords: Dendroclimatology; Adaptive forest management; Hydrology-oriented
40 silviculture; *Pinus halepensis*; Aleppo pine; Tree transpiration.

41

42 **1. Introduction**

Water resource availability in the Mediterranean will be seriously jeopardized in the foreseeable future (García-Ruiz et al., 2011), which may have a substantial impact on the semiarid forests growing in the region (Lindner et al., 2010; Torras et al., 2012). To improve forest resilience, forest managers need adaptive strategies that help make forest management more efficient and effective under changing water resource availability (Sjölund and Jump, 48 2013). However, although many studies have addressed this need in recent years, reliable
49 guidelines for adaptive management in line with the eco-regional and social context are still
50 scarce (Fitzgerald et al., 2013).

51 In water-limited regions, adaptive management usually focuses on forest and water 52 relationships based on hydrology-oriented silviculture (Del Campo et al., 2014; Ungar et al., 53 2013). Guidelines for this silviculture should be developed through a full approach covering 54 tree to stand scales. Stand scale is related to the hydrologic performance of the physical 55 structure of forests (density, LAI, canopy storage etc.), in which thinning is known to affect 56 water cycle components such as rainfall interception, throughfall, transpiration, soil moisture 57 and deep infiltration (Del Campo et al., 2014; Molina and Del Campo, 2012). On the other 58 hand, tree-scale studies provide fundamental information about how changing forest structure 59 and microclimate might lead to modifications in the ecophysiology of photosynthesis, 60 transpiration and tree water relations (Aussenac, 2000). In this context, tree climate-growth 61 relations, water use (WU) and water use efficiency (WUE) are central topics to be tackled 62 when relating forest management and tree water (Brooks and Mitchell, 2011; Forrester et al., 63 2012; Kruse et al., 2012; Sohn et al., 2013; Ungar et al., 2013). While WU is the amount of 64 water transpired by trees (Burgess et al., 2001), WUE is the ratio of carbon gain per WU 65 (Brienen et al., 2011). In most of the literature, WUE is discussed either in terms of an 66 instantaneous measurement of the efficiency of carbon gain per water loss, i.e. intrinsic water-67 use efficiency (WUEi), or as an integral of such efficiency over time, commonly expressed as 68 the ratio of water use to biomass accumulation or to harvestable yield (Dye, 2000; Hubbard et 69 al., 2010).

Plant carbon stable isotope composition (δ^{13} C) provides a time-integrated proxy of WUEi during the growing season (Dawson et al., 2002; Farquhar et al., 1989), because the isotopic carbon discrimination of plants is linearly linked to the C_i/C_a ratio, where C_i is the 73 partial pressure of CO₂ in the leaf intercellular spaces and C_a that of the ambient air (Farquhar 74 et al., 1982; Sheidegger et al., 2000). However, increases in δ^{13} C, interpreted as a reduction in 75 C_i, may be the result of either i) reduced stomatal conductance (gs) at a constant 76 photosynthetic capacity (A) or ii) increase in A at a constant gs, i.e. changes in WUEi are due 77 to changes in transpiration rate or in photosynthesis activity. To overcome this, the dualisotope model (Sheidegger et al., 2000) was developed to constrain the interpretation of δ^{13} C 78 79 variations in organic matter by measuring δ^{18} O in the same material. In principle, the latter as 80 a proxy for evaporative demand would be modified by gs but not by A, thus allowing for a 81 better interpretation of WUEi. This model is conceptually sound and many authors have used 82 it to interpret δ^{13} C results measured in tree rings (Brooks and Mitchell, 2011). However, 83 Roden and Siegwolf (2012), on analysing the systematic use of this conceptual model, warned 84 about specific situations in which its applicability might be compromised.

85 Studies of WUEi and of the use of stable isotopes in Aleppo pine have been profuse in 86 the literature. Previous studies used this technique to assess climate-growth relations (Ferrio 87 et al., 2003), intra-specific differences in WUEi related to seed origin (Voltas et al., 2008) and 88 differences in plantation performance (Querejeta et al., 2008), or to specifically address tree 89 water use in the species (Klein et al., 2013a). Some of these studies provide key information 90 for improving silviculture in the face of increasing water scarcity in Mediterranean regions. 91 However, how forest management affects WUE, how long these changes may last and how 92 stable isotopes can study these effects remain unclear for this species. For instance, Moreno-93 Gutiérrez et al. (2011, 2012) report no variation in WUEi in Aleppo pine after reducing forest 94 density; similar results were found by Martín Benito et al. (2010) for black pine. In addition, 95 Gyenge and Fernández (2014) report that thinning increased the amount of water reaching the 96 soil, but that WUEi was unrelated to growth, nitrogen and light use efficiencies. On the other 97 hand, Querejeta et al. (2008) report a significant effect of the afforestation method on WUEi

98 of Aleppo pine saplings. In addition, in most studies WUE is addressed by studying δ^{13} C in 99 tree-rings (i.e. WUEi), although some divergences may appear when δ^{13} C results are 100 compared to other techniques such as leaf-scale gas exchange (Klein et al., 2013a).

101 The present study complements our previously published stand-scale results from a 102 stagnated Aleppo pine plantation (Del Campo et al., 2014) and specifically addresses: i) What 103 are the short- and medium-term effects of thinning intensity on WUE and growth of trees? ii) 104 Do these effects change in drought periods? iii) Is there congruency between WUEi findings 105 with the isotope-based approach and WUE findings obtained from tree growth and tree water 106 use by sap flow measurements? We also addressed the question of whether the dual isotope 107 technique (δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O) could be used to explain further the WUE results.

108 2. Material and Methods

109 **2.1. Experimental site and design**

110 The experimental site and design have been described elsewhere (Del Campo et al., 111 2014). Briefly, "La Hunde" site is located in Valencia, Spain (39°5 N; 1°13 W, 943 m a.s.l.). 112 The climate is Mediterranean with an average total annual precipitation of 477 mm and a 113 mean annual temperature of 14.1°C. The soils are shallow (50-60cm) with a sandy-silty 114 texture and basic pH. The area is occupied by Pinus halepensis Mill. plantations about 50-60 115 years old and with high tree density (ca. 1,500 trees/ha) due mainly to low forest 116 management. The experimental set-up encompassed five treatments. One of them was 117 selected within a non-replicated plot heavily thinned in 1998 (H98), leaving approximately 118 10% of the trees. This 0.2 ha plot was established and sampled to assess the medium-term 119 effects of thinning. Adjacent to this plot, another experimental area was set up. This consisted 120 of a randomized block design with three blocks (0.36 ha each) to assess the short-term effects 121 of thinning. Each block was further divided into four plots (30x30m), three of them with

122 thinning treatments performed in 2008 at different intensities (High-H, Medium-M and Low-

123 L) and a control plot (C) common to both experimental areas (Table 1).

124 **2.2. Tree growth**

125 Between eight and twelve trees per treatment were cored (north and south) by a 5mm 126 increment borer at 1.30 m height. Each core was mounted on a wooden support and sanded 127 until wood cells were clearly identified under the stereomicroscope. All cores were visually 128 cross-dated and measured to the nearest 0.01mm with a measuring table (LINTAB 6.0, Frank 129 Rinn, Heidelberg, Germany) coupled with the TSAP-Win software package (Rinn, 2011). 130 Cross-dating of the tree-ring width (TRW) series was evaluated by the COFECHA software 131 (Holmes, 1983). Cores with missing rings were ruled out for any further analysis. The average 132 series length was 50.2 (σ =2.51) years; autocorrelation at 1-year average was 0.76 (σ =0.09); 133 and the Gini coefficient, which describes annual changes in the inequality of size and size 134 increment, was 0.42 (σ = 0.08), where 0 indicates perfect equality (the size or growth of all 135 individuals is the same) and 1 indicates perfect inequality. The average series correlation to 136 the master chronology was 0.79 (σ =0.07), excluding the H98 treatment, which was analysed 137 separately, obtaining a correlation of 0.80 (σ =0.09).

138 The tree ring width (TRW) series were detrended to reduce the systematic noise 139 caused by tree age (Cook and Briffa, 1990), using a cubic smoothing spline function with a 140 wavelength fixed at 67% (Cook et al., 1990) of the length of the series, and a 50% frequency response. In some cores a negative exponential method was used instead. Each measured 141 142 series was standardized by dividing the observed values by the predicted ones to obtain 143 dimensionless TRW index series (TRWi). TRWi was averaged using a robust bi-weight 144 mean. Additionally, the temporal autocorrelation was removed from each series by an 145 autoregressive model (Cook and Briffa, 1990) to obtain the standard and residual chronology.

To determine the length of the residual chronology for which climatological responses would
be tested, a running (20-year) mean of the expressed population signal (EPS) statistic was
used to provide an indication of chronology reliability (Wigley et al., 1984).

149 Then, TRW data were used to estimate annual biomass increment value by an 150 allometric equation developed for *Pinus halepensis* Mill. in the Mediterranean area (Gracia et 151 al., 2004). Factors that might affect allometric relationships in this species vary with stand density, age, site and recent weather conditions (López-Serrano et al., 2005). Because there is 152 153 no reported study on this species with a similar combination of these factors, we decided to 154 opt for allometric models based on regional forest inventory data (Gracia et al., 2004), which 155 cover a wide ecological range and a good representation of Aleppo pine forest conditions and 156 trends across the landscape. The allometric equations used come from pure or mixed stands 157 (basal area of *Pinus halepensis* \geq 70%) with a minimum canopy cover of 40%. The 158 equations allow total aboveground biomass to be calculated (N=2,206 trees, R²=0.61, 159 standard error of estimation 0.74 kg). Belowground biomass was assumed to be 0.30 of the 160 aboveground value, in the range 0.23-0.35 previously reported for this species (Alfaro-161 Sánchez et al., 2015 and references therein).

162

2.3. Water use and meteorological determinations

Sap flow was measured by the heat ratio method (HRM) (Burgess et al., 2001) in four trees per treatment from April 2009 to May 2011, as described in Del Campo et al. (2014). The years 2009 and 2010 from these records were used in this study to calculate water use efficiency (WUE). An artificial neural network model (Fernandes et al., 2015) estimated water use in the months when data were missing or absent. The trees in which sap flow was measured were cored for the growth and isotope analyses. WUE in each tree was calculated for the years 2009 and 2010, as the ratio between annual biomass increment (grams of dry weight) and tree water use (litres). Daily data on precipitation and temperature were also
available at the site. The long-term series (1960-2008) were obtained from the meteorological
stations nearest to the study site (Ayora-La Hunde from SAIH-CHJ network and Almansa
from SIAR network).

174 **2.4 Carbon and Oxygen isotope analysis**

175 Stable isotopes in the growth rings for the 1995 to 2010 period for the C and H98 176 treatments were analysed in order to explore the effect of thinning in the medium term. For 177 the treatments thinned in 2008, the period analysed ran from 2004 to 2010. The samples for 178 this isotopic analysis were taken in April 2012 from cores that had been previously measured 179 and dated. The sanded core surfaces were thoroughly cleaned with ethyl alcohol p.a. and 180 small sections, including both early and late wood, were taken with a surgical blade under the 181 stereomicroscope. We sampled whole wood with no previous treatment to separate fractions, 182 in order to minimize analysis time and resources. Recent literature has confirmed that, in 183 Aleppo pine, whole wood provides more consistent and coherent relationships with climatic 184 variables (Del Castillo et al., 2015; Klein et al., 2013b). Samples were ground in an agate mortar and weighed to the nearest 0.001 g in Ag capsules for δ^{18} O analysis and in Sn capsules 185 for δ^{13} C analysis. 186

Isotopic signatures of the wood samples were measured on-line by an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Finnigan MAT, delta S, delta XL plus, delta XP) *via* a Conflo II interface for the combustion/pyrolysis of organic material, at the Paul Scherrer Institut, Ecosystem Fluxes Research Group, Villigen, Switzerland. Stable isotope data are presented as δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, respectively, relative to the international VPDB standard (‰).

192 **2.5 Intrinsic water use efficiency**

193 The isotopic discrimination (Δ - Farquhar and Richards, 1984) between carbon from 194 atmospheric CO₂ and plant carbon from C₃ plants, resulting from the preferential use of ¹²C 195 over ¹³C during photosynthesis, is defined in Eq. 1.

196
$$\Delta = \left(\delta^{13} C_{atm} - \delta^{13} C_{wood} \right) / (1 + \delta^{13} C_{wood} / 1000)$$
(1)

197 where $\delta^{13}C_{atm}$ and $\delta^{13}C_{wood}$ are the isotopic ratios of carbon ($^{13}C/^{12}C$) in atmospheric CO₂ and 198 plant material, respectively.

199 Δ is linearly related to Ci/Ca, which is the ratio of intercellular (Ci) to atmospheric 200 (Ca) CO₂ mole fractions, by Eq. 2 (Farquhar et al., 1982):

201
$$\Delta = a + (b - a)C_i/C_a$$
(2)

where *a* is the fractionation during CO₂ diffusion through the stomata (4.4‰; O'Leary, 1981) and *b* is the fractionation associated with reactions by Rubisco and PEP carboxylase (27‰; Farquhar and Richards, 1984). C_a and δ^{13} C_{atm} were obtained for each year, using the relations found by Feng (1999), by means of equations 3 and 4, respectively.

206
$$C_a = 277.78 + 1.35 \times e^{0.01572 \times (year - 1740)}$$
 (3)

207
$$\delta^{13}C_{atm} = -6.429 - 0.0060 \times e^{0.0217 \times (year - 1740)}$$
 (4)

We used this additional information, as described in Kruse et al. (2012), to estimate C_i and intrinsic water use efficiency (WUEi) for particular years, as affected by stand development and plantation management, following thinning.

211
$$C_i = \delta^{13}C_{atm} - \delta^{13}C_{wood} - a/b - a$$
 (5)

212
$$WUEi = A/g = (C_a/1.6) \times (b - \delta^{13}C_{atm} + \delta^{13}C_{wood})/(b-a)$$
 (6)

- 213 WUEi is usually expressed in μ molCO₂/molH₂O.
- 214 **2.6.** Data treatment and analysis

Data of TRW, δ^{18} O and WUEi were tested for differences between the pre-treatment period (1995-1998 in H98, 2004-2007 in H, M and L treatments) and the post-treatment periods (2008-2010). In all cases the control (C) was also included. Before the analyses, data were tested for normality and variance homogeneity by the Shapiro-Wilk test and Levene tests, respectively. The t-student, ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis tests were the procedures used for mean comparisons, using the R-package Agricolae (Mendiburu, 2014) and at p-level <0.05.

222 For the pair H98 and C, these analyses were also conducted in contrasting years by 223 classifying them as dry or wet years. For this purpose, the Standardized Precipitation Index 224 (SPI) (McKee et al., 1993) was calculated by the R-package SPEI index (Beguería and 225 Vicente-Serrano, 2013) to adjust the precipitation series to a given Pearson III distribution 226 probability (Pasho et al., 2011). Positive SPI values indicate greater than median 227 precipitation; and negative values, lower than median precipitation. For the purpose of this 228 study we considered that a drought event started when the SPI value reached -1.0 and ended 229 when the SPI became positive again. A year was considered dry when the sum of the SPI for 230 a 3-month time scale was less than zero; and wet, when it was greater than zero.

231 For the dendroclimatic analysis (influence of thinning on the dendroclimatic 232 responses), the residual chronologies (TRWi) from Control and High 98 treatments were 233 examined. The relationship between the residual chronologies and climate data in the time 234 interval 1960-2010 was determined by bootstrapped response functions (Guiot, 1991). To 235 investigate the stability of growth-climate relationships, the moving response by TreeClim R-236 package was used (Zang and Biondi, 2013, 2015). The coefficients of the response functions 237 were obtained through principal-component regression (Fritts, 1976). Correlation analysis 238 used Pearson's product moment correlation. The significance of correlation and response 239 function coefficients was tested at 0.05 level using 1,000 bootstrapped estimates, obtained at random by replacement from the initial data set (Wang et al., 2012; Zang and Biondi, 2015).
The temporal window used for calculating growth-climate relations extends from April of the
previous year to October of the growth year for the common period (Magruder et al., 2013),
which was considered adequate to explain tree-ring width variations. All statistical
procedures, except a cross-dating check, were performed using R 3.1.3 GUI 1.62 (R Core
Team, 2015).

246 **3. Results**

247 **3.1. Influence of thinning in the short and medium term**

Tree growth, expressed as TRW, varied a lot in the initial growth of the stand (ca. 15 years), probably related to genetics and environmental conditions. This stage was followed by a steady decrease in both magnitude and variability, probably related to increased competition between trees (Fig. 1). In the following years, TRW values were very small, but still showed responses to climate conditions, especially during dry years (e.g. 1987-1988, 1994-1995 and 2004-2005). Following thinning, the remaining trees showed significant increases in TRW compared with control ones (Fig. 1a, b).

Expressed population signals (EPS) of all TRW residual chronologies were above the critical value of 0.85 (Wigley et al., 1984). In addition, the mean of the correlations between series from each tree over all trees also indicated good agreement (>0.80). In all chronologies there were TRW index reductions in dry years, whereas periods characterized by a substantial increase in radial growth were observed in wet years and after thinning at different scales (Fig. 1c, d). Despite the differences observed after thinning, no significant differences were found in the TRW index before and after thinning (data not shown).

Table 2 summarizes the differences for mean TRW in selected years before and afterthinning. There were significant differences after thinning in both the medium-term (between

C and H98) and the short-term analysis, although in this case the lowest-intensity thinning (L)did not differ in growth from the Control.

Values for WUEi ranged from 80.6 to 114.9 μ molCO₂/molH₂O (Table 2), with significant differences after thinning between H98 and C. Values were higher in the Control trees, although this trend was not always consistent over time (Fig. 2a). In contrast, no significant difference was observed in the short-term analysis between any of the thinned treatments and the control treatment (Table 2), with only a marginal difference (p<0.1) between H and C in the single-year comparison (Fig. 2b).

Values for δ^{18} O ranged from 26.4 to 32.1‰, being very similar in all individual trees 272 273 before thinning (average = 28.5 ± 0.84 %), and increased after thinning in the short term (2008-274 2010) (Table 2), with significant differences between H and M treatments relative to C (Fig. 275 3b-d). In the case of the H98 trees, the δ^{18} O values (Fig. 3a) were on average 1.8‰ higher 276 than those of the C trees from 1998 to 2004, but this difference dropped in the period 2005-277 2009 to only 0.3‰ and became non-significant in the 2008-2010 period (Table 2). These results indicate a short-term effect of thinning on δ^{18} O that then drops in the medium term, 278 279 although splitting the sample into wet/dry years yielded significant differences (see below).

280 **3.2. Relationships between thinning and climate**

Growth, WUEi and δ^{18} O were also compared between H98 and C trees in specific dry and wet years according to the SPI index (Fig. 1S - supplementary material). In this analysis, significant effects of thinning on the three variables in the drier years and on TRW and δ^{18} O in the wetter years were found (Table 3), with higher growth and δ^{18} O in H98 and higher WUEi in C. The other treatments and Control could not be compared because there were not enough wet and dry years before and after thinning. However, there were different slopes on the response of WUEi to annual precipitation after thinning (F=11.03; p=0.021) and no significant difference in the slopes of this response before thinning (F=0.27, p=0.85).
Taking all treatments together, WUEi increased significantly for dry years, regardless of the
thinning treatment (Fig. 4).

291 The static bootstrapped correlation function between tree-ring residual chronologies 292 (TRWi) and climate data (precipitation and temperature) showed different patterns between C 293 and H98 plots, with more uniformity in the sign of correlations in C than in H98: a negative 294 relationship with monthly temperature and a positive one with monthly precipitation (Fig. 2S 295 supplementary material). By seasons, TRWi in C correlated with summer precipitation (June 296 to August; r=0.50) and correlated negatively with summer mean air temperature (r=-0.44), 297 both in the current year. For H98, only autumn temperature correlated with TRWi (September 298 to November; r=0.37) and no significant correlation with precipitation was found.

299 As growth-climate relationships are not necessarily stable over time, a bootstrapped 300 moving-response function analysis was also performed (Fig. 5). In this case, a similar pattern 301 between monthly precipitation and growth to that described above was observed: higher and 302 positive dependence of growth on precipitation in C trees, which increases over time. That is 303 to say, the H98 plot showed less consistent patterns between precipitation in the current year 304 and growth (only a clear response with May precipitation, Fig. 5b) than the C plot (Fig. 5a), 305 which showed a higher positive response with July to September precipitation of the current year. This pattern was especially clear during the 15 years after the thinning (Fig. 5): temporal 306 307 windows from 1998 onwards show that the relationship between growth and monthly 308 precipitation in the thinned plot varies between positive and negative, i.e. without a clear 309 pattern (significant correlations were found only in April-May in this period); whereas in the 310 Control the frequency of positive and significant correlations between growth and 311 precipitation, whenever it occurs, is much higher.

312 **3.3 WU, WUE, WUEi and \delta^{18}O**

313 Water use, the mean annual transpiration per tree, was greatest in the trees from the 314 H plot, followed by H98>M>L>C, although there was no statistical significance between C, L 315 and M (Fig. 6). On average (years 2009 and 2010), a tree from high-intensity thinning (H) 316 transpired more than three times the amount of water transpired by a control tree. However, 317 water use efficiency (WUE), obtained from both these data and those from the annual 318 increment of biomass in dry weight, showed that trees from both H- and M-intensity thinning 319 were more efficient than the C trees (Fig. 6). The other thinning treatments (L and H98) 320 showed gradually higher WUE than the C one did, but without significant differences (C:1.26, 321 L:1.84, M:2.97, H:3.20 and H98:2.51 g biomass/L water transpired).

These data on WUE did not show any correlation with WUEi, which showed no differences between treatments (except in drier years in the medium-term analysis). In fact, there was a clear trend for the C trees to have higher values of WUEi in the years 2009 and 2010 (Fig. 2). The units of WUEi, μ mol C fixed per mol H₂O, are used as a relative indicator rather than an absolute value. However, it was thought useful to compare WUE and WUEi for the same trees and the same years and thus show the effect of treatments.

328 **4. Discussion**

Hydrology-oriented silviculture might assist in adapting semiarid forests to climate changes. However, to achieve this goal requires better understanding and quantification of tree-water relations and in particular of tree water use efficiency. Here, the effects of thinning in the short and medium term were studied by focusing on water use efficiency and climategrowth relationships in a semiarid, planted pine forest.

4.1. Influence of thinning in the short and medium term

335 Thinning induced differences in tree growth rates, as expected (Del Campo et al., 336 2014). The results on the isotopes showed a medium-term effect of thinning on WUEi (higher for C trees) and a short-term effect on δ^{18} O (lower for C trees). Similar findings were reported 337 by Brooks and Mitchell (2011), with a significant increase in δ^{18} O up to 6 years after thinning 338 339 (thinning removed 50% of basal area), i.e. in the short term, and with little or no response on 340 WUEi in both the long and the short term. Independence of WUEi on stand density reduction 341 in the short term was reported for Aleppo pine by Moreno-Gutiérrez et al. (2011). These 342 results suggest that medium to high thinning does not improve WUEi in spite of the important 343 physiological changes induced in the remaining trees, as seen for growth. This may be 344 because, under our experimental conditions, the years after thinning were very similar in 345 terms of overall precipitation, despite the differences in net rainfall between plots (Del Campo 346 et al., 2014) and the different seasonal distribution of precipitation (Fig. 3S and 4S -347 Supplementary materials). This is supported by the results found for dry years (Table 3) and 348 the significant relation between WUEi and precipitation (Fig. 4). Strong correlation between WUEi, δ^{18} O and growth with inter-annual changes in water availability is known in *Pinus* 349 350 halepensis (Moreno-Gutiérrez et al., 2012).

Differences in δ^{18} O were also enhanced in dry years in our study. However, our δ^{18} O 351 results do not corroborate those reported by Moreno-Gutiérrez et al. (2011), in which the 352 remaining Aleppo pine trees in the heavily thinned treatment had lower leaf δ^{18} O than the 353 354 moderately thinned ones. These authors attribute this to higher stomatal conductance due to 355 decreased inter-tree competition for water, which is supported by Farquhar et al. (2007). In 356 contrast, other authors (Martín-Benito et al., 2010) reported that changes in canopy 357 microclimate after thinning (decrease in relative humidity and increase in leaf temperature) are the likely drivers for δ^{18} O cell increases, which is also supported by Farquhar et al. 358

359 (2007). Our results corroborate this latter theory, suggesting that increases in δ^{18} O might be 360 due to the hotter and drier environment induced in the stand after thinning, but that this 361 increase might not be related to changes in stomatal conductance.

362

4.2. Climate growth relationships after thinning

363 Results have demonstrated that thinning makes trees less sensitive to water 364 shortages, indicating that trees in the C plot need to rely more heavily on current year 365 precipitation than those in H98. These results are common for several species (Martín-Benito 366 et al., 2010; Simonin et al., 2007; Sohn et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013), although no data have 367 been reported specifically for Aleppo pine, to the author's knowledge. Other authors have 368 analysed climate-growth relations for this species (De Luis et al., 2011; Moreno-Gutiérrez et 369 al., 2011, 2012; Pasho et al., 2012), but no management effect was assessed. As such, our 370 main finding is the observed temporal trend of growth-climate relationship, varying over the 371 trees' lifetime (Herrero et al., 2013; Magruder et al., 2013), especially after thinning. The 372 dynamics of cambial activity in Aleppo pine is characterized by two major growth phases, 373 one in spring (March-May) and another in autumn (September-November), interrupted in the 374 summer period (De Luis et al., 2011), which in turn also affects tree-ring growth (Moreno-375 Gutiérrez et al., 2012). In our study, tree growth in the thinned plot (H98) showed a positive 376 association with the previous summer's temperature and with May precipitation in the same 377 year, thus taking advantage of the rainfall increase recorded in May during the last 15 years 378 (Fig. 4S - Supplementary materials). On the other hand, the C plot was constrained by water 379 deficit (Del Campo et al., 2014): any precipitation in the growing season fostered growth, 380 with its relationship becoming significantly more positive as time passed and competition 381 among trees increased. However, these relationships were lower in H98 as a consequence of 382 less competition due to thinning, emphasizing the importance of water supply when the 383 vessels are formed (González and Eckstein, 2003).

As these results confirm that thinning increases the resilience of Aleppo pine trees to climate variations, it should be seen as an effective use of adaptive silviculture to face climate changes. However, it seems that when thinning is delayed, the results might be less effective due to more prolonged stagnation, as observed in our contrasting experimental plots (H *vs* H98, Fig. 2).

389

4.3. Interpreting trends in WUE, WUEi and δ^{18} O

390 Our WUE results for 2009 and 2010, estimated from water use through sap flow and 391 biomass increment measurements, indicated that all thinning treatments improved the way 392 trees used the soil water reservoir, but to different extents. WUE grew proportionally with 393 decreasing forest cover, as indicated by a strong increase from C to M trees and similar values 394 for M and H trees. Moreover, a high-intensity thinning treatment (H98) also showed (though 395 non-significant) improvement in WUE 10 years after the intervention (ca. two-fold compared 396 with C trees), but progressively decreased when compared to H. As the biomass term in the 397 estimation of WUE is derived from diameter-based allometric equations, we suspect that 398 some of our treatments (especially those with low densities) are out of the range covered by 399 the equations. This is why we used up to six allometric equations from different authors 400 (Jenkins et al. 2003; Grünzweig et al., 2007; Alfaro-Sánchez et al., 2015 and references 401 therein), including models derived from low-density stands. Estimates of total tree biomass 402 indicated that variations between treatments in our equations were similar and proportional 403 within the different models (data not shown). In a nearby region with similar site, same 404 species and different thinning treatments, Alfaro-Sánchez et al. (2015) reported that root 405 growth was comparatively lower (root/shoot ratio) under high density and no management. If 406 this occurred in our study, it would enhance the differences between treatments.

407 In terms of hydrology-oriented silviculture, the most interesting result was found 408 when comparing tree water use, which clearly increased from C to H trees, to tree WUE, 409 which had an opposite trend. This indicates that trees in the M treatment, with a moderate soil 410 water uptake between the C, L trees and the H trees, offset their water use by high growth 411 rates, probably due to changes in A (photosynthetic rate), as may be expected from this forest 412 structure reduction. Hale (2003) found that light environment below canopy was 413 exponentially modified by basal area reduction through thinning in a Sitka spruce plantation. 414 Therefore, and considering the hydrological data for these trees at the stand scale (Del Campo 415 et al., 2014), we hypothesize that the opening created by the M treatment represents the initial 416 stage in which substantial modifications in microclimatic conditions are produced, affecting 417 leaf photosynthesis by improving light intensity and leaf temperature (Aussenac, 2000). 418 Moreover, through the H, H98 and C comparisons, we observed that WUE was still higher 10 419 years after thinning (H98 versus C), but less than the short-term increase (H98 versus H). This 420 result indicates that the efficiency of silvicultural interventions on tree status may change over 421 time (Aussenac, 2000), as could be expected, because of increased forest cover due to crown 422 growth.

423 In contrast, the results from stable isotopes showed a non-significant effect of thinning on WUEi in the short term. Since WUEi estimated from $\delta^{13}C$ may change due to 424 alterations either in A (photosynthetic rate) or gs (stomatal conductance) or both, δ^{18} O was 425 426 complementarily used as an indicator of gs (Scheidegger et al., 2000). These authors described that δ^{18} O in plant tissues may reflect three different sources of variation, i) δ^{18} O in 427 428 the source of water, ii) leaf water enrichment and iii) biochemical fractionation during the 429 synthesis of organic matter. In this respect, several thinning studies have considered the $\delta^{18}O$ 430 in the source of water and the biochemical fractionation during the synthesis of organic matter 431 to be the same in control and thinned trees, when trees are collocated and are from the same 432 species (Brooks and Mitchell, 2011; Martín-Benito et al., 2010). Therefore, gs changes are 433 directly related to the leaf water enrichment led by thinning. This would suggest that our 434 δ^{18} O-enriched treatments (H, M and H98) showed higher gs and consequently higher water 435 use, which is consistent with our experimental data on sapflow. However, other authors have pointed out that it is difficult to correlate δ^{18} O and gs (Barnard et al., 2012), since the 436 437 environmental factors affecting leaf water enrichment should be constant among the sampled 438 trees (Roden and Siegwolf, 2012). Our thinning treatments increased considerably the amount 439 of water reaching the soil surface by reducing rainfall interception, but also increased 440 evaporation from the soil (Del Campo et al., 2014; Molina and Del Campo, 2012). Therefore, we hypothesize that the assumption of constant δ^{18} O in the soil water between the sampled 441 442 trees may be violated by thinning causing evaporation to increase during rainfall and by 443 higher direct evaporation from the soil surface. However, Moreno-Gutiérrez et al. (2011) 444 found no differences in δ^{18} O in xylem water (proxy for soil water) between moderate and 445 heavy thinning treatments under similar experimental conditions.

446 To address the discrepancies we found between WUE and WUEi, we posited no 447 differences in our source of water (as reported by Moreno-Gutiérrez et al., 2011) and thus assumed higher gs in our δ^{18} O-enriched trees (which was consistent with the sapflow results). 448 449 Then, the lack of changes in WUEi as derived from δ^{13} C might be due to an underestimation 450 of A (photosynthetic rate), which must have increased proportionally more than gs in order to 451 agree with the WUE observed from biomass growth. Therefore, the question concerning the 452 use of stable isotopes as a tool for determining the physiological impact of thinning remains 453 open. Our experimental data do not support predictions drawn from the dual-isotope 454 conceptual model (Scheidegger et al., 2000) (Table 4), assuming stomatal conductance as a 455 proxy for WU and photosynthetic capacity as a proxy for biomass growth. Following Roden 456 and Siegwolf (2012), this disagreement might be grounded in (i) the differences in ambient humidity and leaf temperature for different thinning treatments; the δ^{18} O enrichment of soil 457 458 water could be a source of uncertainty, as previously discussed; (ii) that the ratio of vapour 459 pressure deficit (D) to gs was not previously studied for P. halepensis, making it difficult to 460 ascertain how potential humidity variation would translate into changes in gs; (iii) both 461 isotopes being measured in tree rings, which could show dampened signals when compared to 462 leaf δ^{18} O; (iv) the ambient humidity/D ratios between treatments and years not remaining 463 constant - this may well be the greatest limitation on using this model in plots with different 464 treatments; and (v) the drought signal (common in Mediterranean summers) in isotope 465 composition in leaves might not be well represented in tree ring material because of shut-off 466 periods in secondary growth.

Other studies in this species also found discrepancies between WUEi from leaf-scale gas exchange measurements and from the integrated tree ring-based values (Klein et al., 2013a). To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first study in semiarid forests to compare WUE measurements at stand level, with thinning treatments, and WUEi in tree rings as a time-integrated proxy of WUE during the growing season. Consequently, more studies will be needed to clarify to what extent stable isotopes are suitable tools in forest management.

474 Conclusions

While some of the effects of thinning have been pointed out in other studies, this paper introduces a novel contribution relating water use efficiency (WUE), as measured by sap flow sensors, and intrinsic water use efficiency (WUEi) derived from stable isotope analyses in the same trees in a Mediterranean Aleppo pine plantation subjected to different thinning intensities.

Thinning induced differences in tree growth rates and changed the tree growthclimate relationships, showing higher dependence in the non-thinned plot on monthly precipitation in the current year whatever the season, whereas tree growth in the thinned plot 483 was more related to the expected ecophysiological pattern, i.e. precipitation in May. These 484 results are more consistent as time has elapsed since the first thinning in 1998, creating a 485 significant improvement in forest resilience to climate changes. The earlier high-intensity 486 thinning treatment (H98) had a higher initial growth rate than the similar 2008 thinning 487 treatment (H), showing that the delay in the decision to thin hampers initial growth rates.

488 Measurements of stable isotopes in tree rings have been said to provide powerful 489 information about the physiological and environmental factors that control WU and WUEi. 490 However, our study indicated slight or no changes in WUEi after thinning, and only dry years 491 seemed to enhance WUEi, especially in the high-competing stands (control). According to 492 δ^{18} O data and the Sheidegger et al. (2000) model, this enhancement is due to an improved 493 photosynthetic rate. These results do not corroborate the experimental ones when the sapflow 494 technique was employed, in which thinned plots had higher water use and also higher WUE 495 than control plots due to a significant increase in tree growth after thinning, which seemed to 496 be underestimated when using WUEi estimated from δ^{13} C. This conclusion points to the need 497 for more detailed studies along these lines, incorporating a broader sample of years and 498 species, before general assumptions can be made about changes in WUE in Mediterranean 499 forests, as derived from adaptive treatments.

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511 **References**

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- 697

698 Table 1. Forest structure variables in each plot studied. DBH is average Diameter at Breast

699	Height, Adar	oted from	Molina	and Del	Campo ((2012)) and Del	Camr	o et al. ((2014))
0,,,	The first the fi	neu monn	monna		Cumpo	(2012)		Cump	0 et ul. ((2 011)	

Treatment	Cover	Density	DBH	Mean height	Basal Area
	(%)	(trees ha ⁻¹)	(cm)	(m)	$(m^2 ha^{-1})$
Control (C)	84	1489	17.8	11.5	40.1
Low intensity (L)	68	744	21.2	12.2	27.2
Medium intensity (M)	50	478	21.7	11.3	18.2
High intensity (H)	22	178	20.4	12.2	9.4
High intensity-1998 (H98)	41	155	25.2	12.6	13.6

- 702 Table 2. Mean values of Tree Ring Width (TRW, cm), intrinsic Water Use Efficiency (WUEi,
- 703 μ molCO2/molH2O) and oxygen isotopic signature (δ 18O, ∞). Mean values followed by the
- same letter did not differ significantly either at short-term or at mid-term (p<0.05).

Time span	Thinning	Treatment	TRW*	WUEi	δ ¹⁸ O
		(thinning			
		intensity)			
Mid-term	Before ('95-'97)	Control	0.09 (a)	98.5 (a)	28.7 (a)
(1995-2010)		High98	0.06 (a)	97.4 (a)	28.9 (a)
	After ('08-'10)	Control	0.06 (b)	94.4 (a)	28.2 (a)
		High98	0.17 (a)	88.7 (b)	29.0 (a)
Short-term	Before ('04-'07)	Control	0.05 (a)	100.4 (a)	28.2 (a)
(2004-2010)		High	0.07 (a)	101.8 (a)	28.3 (a)
		Medium	0.06 (a)	96.4 (a)	28.1 (a)
		Low	0.05 (a)	100.5 (a)	28.2 (a)
	After ('08-'10)	Control	0.07 (c)	94.4(a)	28.2 (b)
		High	0.42 (a)	97.6 (a)	29.3(a)
		Medium	0.19 (b)	94.1 (a)	29.4 (a)
		Low	0.12 (bc)	92.1 (a)	28.5 (ab)

* Mean and differences in TRW refer only to those trees sampled for isotopes analyses.

Table 3. Mean values of Tree Ring Width (TRW, cm), intrinsic Water Use Efficiency (WUEi, μ molCO2/molH2O) and oxygen isotopic signature (δ 18O, ∞). Mean values between treatments followed by the same letter did not differ significantly. * and ** indicate significant differences at p<0.05 and p<0.01 respectively.

Time	Year type	Treatment	TRW	WUEi	δ ¹⁸ O
		Control	0.06 (a)	101.4 (a)	28.5 (a)
	Dry				
		H98	0.06 (a)	99.3 (a)	29.3 (a)
Before thinning					
		Control	0.12 (a)	94.8 (a)	28.7 (a)
	Wet				
		H98	0.07 (a)	93.8 (a)	28.9 (a)
		Control	0.04 (b)**	100.7 (a)**	28.4 (b)**
	Dry				
		H98	0.33 (a)**	96.7 (b)**	29.8 (a)**
After thinning					
		Control	0.06 (b)**	97.3 (a)	28.2 (b)*
	Wet				
		H98	0.37 (a)**	94.2 (a)	29.5 (a)*

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Table 4. Results of the dual-isotope model (Scheidegger et al. 2000) after applied to our experimental data (2009-2010): relative variation in δ^{13} C, δ^{18} O, tree water use (WU) and biomass growth between the different thinning treatments and the control. Up or downward arrows represent increasing or decreasing values, \approx indicates insignificant changes.

					Sheidegger et al. (2000)				
	This paper's data (2009-2010)				Theoretical variation expected for				
	Relativ	e variat	tion to	the Control	stomatal conductance, g (proxy for WU)				
	(treatm	ent value	e / contro	l value)	and photosynthetic capacity, Amax				
					(proxy for biomass growth)				
	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹⁸ Ο	WU	Biomass	δ^{13} C, δ^{18} O scenario	Model output			
Treatment				growth	(model input)	g	Amax		
Low	1.004	1.022	1.109	1.972	b, c	↓, ↓	≈, ↓		
Medium	1.003	1.060	1.054	2.333	b, c	↓, ↓	≈, ↓		
High	0.994	1.044	3.592	8.938	c, d	↓ , ≈	↓, ↓		
High 98	1.020	1.037	2.347	3.668	b	Ļ	~		

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722 Figure captions

Fig. 1. Temporal dynamics of mean Tree Ring Width (TRW, cm; a: 1960-2010, b: 1995-2010) and the residual chronologies (TRW index, c: 1960-2010, d: 1995-2010) in each treatment. Arrows indicate the thinning dates.

Fig. 2. Intrinsic Water Use efficiency (WUEi, μ molCO2/molH2O) by single years. a: Control and High-intensity thinning in 1998, b: Control and High-intensity thinning in 2008, c: Control and Medium-intensity thinning and d: Control and Low-intensity thinning. Data shown are average values \pm SD. A star near the axis indicates significant difference at p<0.05; a double star indicates significant difference at p<0.01; and a dot indicates marginal difference (p<0.1) in that year.

Fig. 3. Tree-ring Oxygen isotopic signature (δ^{18} O, ∞). a: Control and High-intensity thinning in 1998, b: Control and High-intensity thinning in 2008, c: Control and Medium-intensity thinning and d: Control and Low-intensity thinning. Data shown are average values ± SD. A star near the axis indicates significant difference at p<0.05; a double star indicates significant difference at p<0.01; and a dot indicates marginal difference (p<0.1) in that year.

Fig. 4. Relationships between mean intrinsic water use efficiency (WUEi, μmolCO₂/molH₂O)
and total precipitation (Ppt, mm) for all treatments and years together. The black line and
equation refer to all treatments together.

Fig. 5. Moving response functions of precipitation (ppt) from April of previous (prev) year to October of current (curr) year for a residual tree-ring chronology (TRWi). The window size is fourteen years; the windows have been offset by one year. a: Control plot; b: Thinned plot (H98). In each cell, the intensity of the colour represents the magnitude of the correlation

(positive or negative) between growth and monthly precipitation for that temporal window.
Asterisks in a cell indicate significant correlations at p<0.05. A clear change in trend can be
observed in the thinned plot after treatment took place (1998). For a better interpretation of
colours in this Figure, see the web version of this article.

Fig. 6. Mean annual WUE (g of dry weight increment / L of water transpired per tree) and
water use (L of water transpired per tree) for the years 2009 and 2010 in the different
treatments. Treatments with different letters indicate significant differences at p<0.05.
Different case letters mean different analyses.



















- 771 Fig. 5.



776 Fig. 6.

779 Supplementary materials



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Fig. 1S. Evolution of the drought index (SPI) at different time scales (1, 3, 12 months respectively) in the study area for the period 1961 to 2010. Grey-shaded area refers to years 2009 and 2010 corresponding to the period of measurement of water use (tree transpiration) in this study.



Fig. 2S. Static bootstrapped correlation function (Zang and Biondi, 2013) for temperature and precipitation from April of previous year to October of current year. a: Control plot, b: Thinned plot (H98). The darker bars indicate a coefficient significant (p<0.05); the lines represent the 95%-confidence interval. Lowercase letters represent the month of the previous year (April to December) and uppercase letters, month of the current year (January to October)

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Fig. 3S. Seasonal values of total precipitation during the period 1960-2011, following the
atmospheric circulation patterns as described in Pasho et al. (2011). Spring (April-May),
Summer (June-August), Autumn (September-November) and winter (December-March)

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Fig. 4S. Climatic diagram at La Hunde site. Grey and dark grey bars indicate total monthly precipitation (mm) in the period 1960 to 2010 and 1995 to 2010 respectively. Continuous and dashed line represent monthly mean temperature (°C) in the period 1960 to 2010 and 1995 to 2010 respectively.