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- 2

3	Title: Mixing beech with fir or pubescent oak does not help mitigate drought exposure at
4	the limit of its climatic range
5	
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22 Keywords

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26 Abstract:

27 In the context of climate change, it remains unclear whether mixed-species forests will help mitigate the impacts of future droughts and, if so, through which processes. As European beech 28 (Fagus sylvatica) is one of the major European species, it is crucial to evaluate its response to 29 drought when mixed with species with contrasted functional traits and in contrasted climatic 30 conditions, particularly at the limit of its climatic range. This study aimed to (i) characterize the 31 32 effects of tree species interactions on the drought exposure of beech in south-eastern France, and (ii) determine whether belowground water uptake complementarity underlies these effects. 33 We focused on beech-silver fir (Abies alba) and beech-pubescent oak (Ouercus pubescens) 34 35 forests across six sites in the French pre-Alps, a region at the limit of the climatic range for beech. We used a triplet approach to compare the tree-ring carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) 36 of these species in pure and two-species mixed stands during a period of very dry years, and 37 38 used water hydrogen isotope composition (δ^2 H) in the xylem to identify water uptake sources. Overall, we found no clear mixture effect pattern on beech physiological functioning among 39 sites and triplets. In beech-fir sites, mixing beech with fir had no effect on beech δ^{13} C values 40 during dry years. In beech-oak sites, mixture effects on beech were mostly neutral, although 41 sometimes beech suffered from a stronger exposure to drought in mixed stands. Our study 42 43 emphasizes the impact of the tree sampling design on the outcome of studies on forest biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships. Limiting tree sampling to dominant trees 44 when analyzing stand-level relationships may bias these outcomes. We evidenced differences 45

46 in water uptake sources between beech and fir, but not between beech and oak during a dry 47 summer. However, these patterns did not help explain the lack of species mixture effects, or 48 existence thereof, at the triplet scale. Our study demonstrates that managing beech in mixed 49 stands with silver fir or pubescent oak at the limit of beech climatic range does not buffer 50 drought impacts on beech during dry years. In the long term, with more frequent extreme 51 droughts, promoting beech-fir mixtures will not be detrimental to beech drought response, while 52 beech may suffer in mixtures with pubescent oak.

53 **1. Introduction**

European forest ecosystems are expected to be highly impacted by ongoing climate change 54 (Hanewinkel et al., 2013) through an increase in temperatures and more frequent and intense 55 56 droughts (IPCC, 2014; Lehner et al., 2017). Drought-induced stress can lead to a loss of vitality and to mortality for trees, caused by hydraulic failure and carbon starvation (McDowell et al., 57 2008; Hartmann et al., 2018). This will be especially true in southern parts of the European 58 temperate and Mediterranean regions (Lindner et al., 2010). There is therefore a strong need for 59 new management strategies to help forest owners mitigate current and future drought impacts 60 (Bolte et al., 2009). 61

European beech (Fagus sylvatica L.) is an essential species in European forests: its natural 62 distribution covers most of continental Europe and it is the most abundant broad-leaved forest 63 tree in Central Europe (Dittmar et al., 2003). Beech is a drought-sensitive species and is 64 especially vulnerable when the soil water deficit is severe and prolonged (Gessler et al., 2007). 65 Model-based projections predict that climate change will likely induce a reduction in beech-66 dominated forests in southern Europe (Cheaib et al., 2012; Hanewinkel et al., 2013). Growth 67 declines for beech have already been reported in recent decades (Charru et al., 2017), especially 68 at its southern range limits (Jump et al., 2006). 69

Managing temperate forests with higher tree species diversity has been identified as one management strategy that can improve forest productivity (e.g. Toïgo et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2016; Ammer, 2019) and other ecosystem functions (Brockerhoff et al., 2017), such as resistance to disturbances (Jactel et al., 2017). In particular, it has been shown that beech productivity improves in mixed forests compared to pure ones, particularly when beech is admixed with silver fir (*Abies alba* Mill.) or other coniferous species (e.g. Toïgo et al., 2015; Pretzsch and Forrester, 2017). However, it is still not clear whether mixed-species forests also contribute to mitigating drought impacts (Grossiord, 2019), which in turn would have an effect
on forest vitality and productivity. In the case of beech, contrasted effects of species interactions
have been found under drought conditions. Some studies demonstrate lower drought exposure
of beech in mixed stands (e.g. Pretzsch et al., 2013; Metz et al., 2016), but others conclude that
the mixture effect is neutral (e.g. Schwarz and Bauhus, 2019). Furthermore, contrasted results
were found when comparing the effects of the same species mixture, including beech, among
different sites (Schäfer et al., 2017; González de Andrés et al., 2018; Jourdan et al., 2019b).

Two factors have been identified as major drivers for the variability in the outcome of mixture 84 effects on the mitigation of drought impacts: the importance of functional variability among 85 species and the effect of site climatic conditions (Forrester, 2014; Forrester and Bauhus, 2016). 86 First, the outcomes are species-dependent: species with more contrasted functional traits in 87 terms of physiology, phenology or morphology (e.g. root depth, stomatal control, physical traits 88 involved in xylem resistance to embolism), are more likely to show complementarity effects, 89 especially for drought responses (Grossiord, 2019). Secondly, even if the given species mixture 90 91 potentially mitigates drought impacts, the degree of the effect may vary with site-level 92 environmental conditions (Forrester and Bauhus, 2016). Forrester and Bauhus (2016) suggested a theoretical framework, as a generalization of the stress gradient hypothesis (Bertness and 93 94 Callaway, 1994), in which positive mixture effects are expected to be stronger when resources are scarce, for example along a declining precipitation gradient or during severe drought events. 95 In accordance with this framework, Grossiord et al. (2014c, 2014b) found negative or neutral 96 effects in more humid sites and positive effects in drier ones (Grossiord et al., 2014b, 2014c). 97 However, the relationship between mixture effects and a resource gradient may not be linear 98 99 but may rather emerge from threshold points of resource availability (de Streel et al., 2020). Such patterns could be explained by the fact that positive mixture effects may not be strong 100 enough to compensate for the increasing environmental constraints in extremely dry sites and 101

that positive mixture effects on drought response could disappear with strong water stress (e.g.de Streel et al., 2020).

The outcome of studies on the effects of species mixing may also depend on how the trees were 104 105 sampled. To date the typical approach has been to limit the sampling design to dominant trees when examining mixture effects on the response of trees to drought, particularly as measured 106 by carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) (Grossiord et al., 2014c; Metz et al., 2016; Schwarz and 107 108 Bauhus, 2019). However, not including light-suppressed trees in these analyses could bias the overall patterns of mixture effects, as the drought sensitivity of suppressed and dominant trees 109 may differ (Mérian and Lebourgeois, 2011). Including all trees for a more complete 110 representation of the forest stand could help in understanding the variability of mixture effects 111 on drought responses. 112

The processes behind mixture effects on drought exposure are linked to spatial or temporal 113 resource partitioning among species due to competition, facilitation, or niche differentiation for 114 115 resource acquisition and use (Ammer, 2019; Grossiord, 2019). At aboveground level, this may 116 result in, for example, differences in canopy packing and shading effects (Ishii and Asano, 2010; Jucker et al., 2015; Grossiord 2019). At belowground level, complementarity for water 117 uptake and niche differentiation among species could result in a lesser exposure to decreased 118 soil water content during extreme drought events (Forrester, 2014), but these processes have 119 rarely been experimentally tested in the field (Grossiord et al., 2014a; Goisser et al., 2016). 120

Further studies for species diversity effects on beech drought exposure are therefore necessary to identify whether or not tree-species mixing might mitigate drought impacts and maintain beech productivity, particularly along the southern margins of beech distribution in Europe where climate change is occurring the fastest. To address these questions, we studied the effect of species mixture on beech drought exposure during a period with severe summer droughts, in

forest plots of different species compositions distributed across six sites in south-eastern France 126 127 with contrasting climate conditions. We studied two widespread species mixtures with beech in mountainous areas of south-eastern France: beech associated with silver fir (Abies alba Mill.) 128 in the northern part of the region, and beech associated with pubescent oak (Quercus pubescens 129 Willd.) in the southern part. These two accompanying species are likely to show 130 complementarity effects with beech as they have contrasted physiological functioning, i.e. 131 132 contrasted water transport systems and phenology between beech (deciduous species) and fir (evergreen conifer), and contrasted drought and shade tolerance between beech and pubescent 133 oak (Niinemets and Valladares, 2006). We sampled all trees in the stands, including both 134 dominant and light suppressed trees. We used stable carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) in tree 135 rings from dry years to examine the effect of species composition on tree exposition to drought 136 (Grossiord et al., 2014c; Metz et al., 2016). Tree ring analysis provided us with an integrative 137 measurement of past drought effects on tree functioning (McCarroll and Loader, 2004). Tree-138 ring δ^{13} C is expressed as a negative value that increases (less negative values) when a tree is 139 exposed to increased water stress (Saurer et al., 1995). It indirectly reflects the compromise 140 between carbon and water acquisition and use at leaf and plant level (Farquhar et al., 1982). 141 142 Finally, to assess potential water-use complementarity mechanisms, we looked at differences 143 in water uptake sources between species. To do so, we measured the stable hydrogen isotope composition (δ^2 H) in branch xylem water (Dawson, 1993; West et al., 2006). 144

- 145
- We specifically addressed the following questions:
- Is beech physiological functioning (δ¹³C) during dry years influenced by site-specific
 environmental conditions?
- 148 2. Is beech δ^{13} C during dry years different between pure and mixed stands?
- 149 3. Can potential mixture effects be explained by complementarity in species water uptake150 sources?

151 2. Material and Methods

152 2.1. Field design

We selected six sites in the French pre-Alps on limestone bedrock (Fig. 1a, see also Jourdan et 153 154 al., 2019b) spanning a wide range of climatic conditions (Fig. 2). At each site, we used a triplet approach, i.e. an ensemble of three plots: one plot in pure stands of each studied species and 155 one plot in a mixed stand of the same two species (Fig. 1b). All the triplets were located on 156 north-facing slopes. The three plots within each triplet were as close to each other as possible 157 and with a similar slope (Table A1). The soil textures and gravel contents were similar within 158 a triplet. At each site, two sets of such triplets were selected in order to cover local variability 159 in environmental conditions and stand structure, resulting in six plots per site (Fig. 1b). Plot 160 elevations ranged from 700 m to 1400 m (Table A1). 161

162 Figure 1 HERE; size: 2 columns; B&W

European beech (Fagus sylvatica L.) was present at all six sites and was mixed with either silver 163 164 fir (Abies alba Mill.) in the three northern sites (S1 to S3) or with pubescent oak (Quercus pubescens Willd.) in the three southern ones (S4 to S6) (Fig. 1a). In pure plots, the focal species 165 accounted for at least 80% of the total basal area and in the mixed plots each focal species 166 167 accounted for at least 40% of the total basal area (Table A2). Other tree species present in the plots represented less than 20% of the total basal area and were mostly in the understory of the 168 canopy (Table 1, Table A2). The trees from both focal species in the mixed stands were mixed 169 on a stemwise intermingling pattern (del Río et al., 2018). Sites S1 to S4 were located in forests 170 171 with continuous-cover management whereas sites S5 and S6 had limited management. To limit 172 direct management effects, we only worked in stands where no thinning operations had been conducted for at least the last two decades. All the stands were located in mature forests with 173 an uneven-aged high forest structure, except for S5, which was in a coppice forest. Individual 174

plots were circular with a radius of 17.5 m (area = 962 m²) and consisted of a central area (10 m radius, area = 314 m^2) where the measurements were conducted, plus a buffer zone (7.5 m radius) to ensure the plot was surrounded by homogeneous conditions (Fig. 1c).

178 Table 1 HERE; size: 1.5 columns

179 *2.2. Climate data*

180 Climatic variables were extracted from the mesoscale SAFRAN reanalysis of the Météo France national observation network data (Quintana-Seguí et al., 2008). As SAFRAN was initially 181 designed for mountainous areas, it was the best-estimated source of daily climatic data for our 182 183 study region. The precision of the climate data was relevant at the site scale, but not at the triplet scale, as the SAFRAN analysis covers France with an 8 km \times 8 km grid and is calculated for 184 the average elevation of the corresponding grid. We used the SAFRAN long-term climate data 185 to estimate the average cumulative annual precipitation and the mean annual temperature per 186 site over a 20-year period (1994-2013) (Fig. 2; Table A3). 187

188 Figure 2 HERE; size: 1 column; B&W

189 2.3. Choice and characterization of dry years

190 Jourdan et al. (2019b) calculated the standardized precipitation evapotranspiration index (SPEI, Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010) for each of the six sites for the months of February to July, i.e. the 191 192 growth period, of each year from 1994 to 2013 (see Fig. 2 in Jourdan et al., 2019b). SPEI is a standardized index that makes it possible to identify dry years for a given site, but not to 193 compare drought intensity among sites. This enabled us to choose the period of dry years 194 relative to each site within the 1994-2013 period for tree-ring carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) 195 analyses. We targeted the 2003-2007 period because it was representative of a series of severe 196 dry years for all sites. Indeed, this period was on average much drier in terms of precipitation 197

across sites than the 20-year average for 1994-2013 (Fig. 2), but was also hotter during thesummer months (Table A3).

200 To characterize the water stress during these dry years, we used the daily forest water balance 201 model BILJOU© (Granier et al., 1999). We estimated the daily relative extractable water (REW, unitless) for each site based on daily climate data over the 1994-2013 period. REW is 202 the ratio between available soil water and the maximum extractable water (water holding 203 capacity) and varies from field capacity (REW=1) to permanent wilting point (REW=0). Water 204 stress is assumed to occur when REW drops below a threshold of 0.4 under which stomatal 205 conductance, and therefore leaf gas exchange, is gradually reduced (Granier et al., 1999). The 206 207 BILJOU© model has a daily time step and requires daily climatic input variables (mean air temperature, precipitation, wind speed, global radiation, and humidity) as well as soil water 208 holding capacity and leaf area index (LAI). We used SAFRAN daily climatic variables at the 209 site scale. We fixed soil water holding capacity at 100 mm since we were not able to 210 characterize the plot soil profiles precisely. Nevertheless, we tested the BILJOU© model with 211 212 different soil water holding capacity values but this did not change the ranking of the sites in terms of water stress (data not shown). Similarly, we used a single LAI value (i.e. $7.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$) 213 for all the sites as a standard value for mature forests. Adapting this value to the different sites 214 did not change the ranking of the sites. For each year at each site, an annual number of days 215 when REW is below 0.4 was calculated, which allowed to quantify water stress levels (Table 216 A3). 217

- 218 *2.4. Tree measurements*
- 219 *2.4.1. Dendrometry*

In 2014, in the central area of each of the 36 plots, Jourdan et al. (2019b) surveyed all of the trees with a diameter at breast height (DBH, cm) greater than 7.5 cm and recorded their DBH

and total height. They also cored the trunk of all trees with a DBH greater than 7.5 cm in the 222 223 plots at a height of 1.3 m with a Pressler increment borer (Haglöf, Sweden) in 2014-2015. In coppice stands, they only cored the largest stem of each clump of coppice shoots (individual 224 tree). Some cores were too difficult to date accurately and were discarded from further analyses, 225 leaving a total of 792 trees sampled (368 beech, 222 fir and 202 pubescent oak trees), 226 representing all the diameter classes and different strata in the canopy. On these cores, Jourdan 227 228 et al. (2019b) measured tree-ring width for the 1994-2013 period and performed cross-dating for each species according to specific pointer years. 229

230 2.4.2. Carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}C$)

We used these tree cores to analyse the stable carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) of each tree 231 in the tree-rings of the selected period (2003-2007). Using a scalpel under a stereomicroscope, 232 we extracted the tree-rings (including earlywood and latewood) that corresponded to the target 233 period (2003-2007) as one pooled block for all five years. We used whole wood tissue for our 234 235 analyses as it shows the same trends as cellulose-only isotopic measurements and allowed us to 236 analyze a larger number of trees (McCarroll and Loader, 2004). For each tree, the tree-rings of the 2003-2007 period were kept as one sample. We ground them into a fine powder, then 237 weighed around 1 mg of powder for each sample in tin capsules for the isotopic analysis. We 238 239 used a different technique when the dry mass of the 2003-2007 tree-ring sample was less than 6 mg (15 samples out of 792) to avoid any loss of matter in the grinding process. These 15 240 samples were cut into four quarters perpendicularly to the tree-ring axis with a scalpel instead 241 242 of being ground. For each of these samples, we then analyzed separately three out of four subsamples for isotopic composition and used the average of these three δ^{13} C values. The fourth 243 subsample was kept as a spare in case further analyses should be needed on these samples. 244

The ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratios of each wood sample were analyzed with an isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Isoprime 100, Isoprime Ltd., Cheadle Hulme, UK) coupled with an elemental analyzer (EA, Elementar vario, ISOTOPE cube, Elementar Analysen Systeme GmbH, Hanau, Germany) at the SILVATECH platform (Silvatech, INRAE, 2018. Structural and functional analysis of tree and wood Facility, Nancy, France). The results were expressed as carbon isotope composition $\delta^{13}C$ (‰) relative to the international standard Vienna Pee Dee Bee Belemnite (V-PDB) (IAEA, 1995) following Eq. 1:

252
$$\delta^{13}C(\%_0) = \left(\frac{R_{sample}}{R_{standard}} - 1\right) * 1000$$
(1)

where R_{sample} and $R_{standard}$ represent the ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$ ratios of the sample and the V-PDB standard, respectively (Farquhar et al., 1982). The mass spectrometer had a precision of ± 0.2 ‰ for $\delta^{13}C$ values.

In this study, we used two sets of δ^{13} C data for our statistical analyses. First, we used all the 256 δ^{13} C values to characterize the response of all the trees, individually or at the stand level, 257 hereafter called "all trees". Second, we used a subsample of pre-selected dominant trees in each 258 plot, hereafter called "dominant-tree subsample", to analyze the effect of mixture on the δ^{13} C 259 of the trees without any confounding factor related to light availability in the canopy (McCarroll 260 and Loader, 2004). These dominant trees were selected according to the following criteria: (i) 261 they were in the biggest diameter class in each plot, (ii) they had a crown illumination index 262 263 (Dawkins index) of 4 or 5, meaning that they received direct vertical light (Clark and Clark, 1992), (iii) they were well mixed with the other species on a stem-to-stem basis in the mixed 264 stands, and (iv) they were suitable for branch sampling by climbers (see $\delta^2 H$ section). We then 265 266 randomly chose between four and seven of these dominant trees per species in each plot, leading to a total of 240 dominant trees (beech = 121, fir = 57, pubescent oak = 62) out of a total of 792 267 trees measured for δ^{13} C. 268

One caveat should be noted concerning our $\delta^{13}C$ measurements: we were able to compare $\delta^{13}C$ 269 functioning during dry years between pure and mixed plots, but we were not able to use the 270 difference in $\delta^{13}C$ between a reference wet year and a dry year to estimate tree drought 271 resistance, as some studies have done to detect mixture effects (e.g., Grossiord et al., 2014c; 272 Schwarz and Bauhus, 2019). Indeed, during the period from 1994 to 2013, we were not able to 273 find any years that were wet enough to serve as a reference across all sites. Moreover, as growth 274 is very slow at some of the sites with a Mediterranean influence, we would not have been able 275 to cut out single yearly tree-rings precisely enough. Other studies have also used absolute values 276 of δ^{13} C, as we did, albeit usually over a longer-term chronology (González de Andrés et al., 277 278 2018; de Streel et al., 2020). Moreover, in a study looking at tree diversity effects on drought responses using δ^{13} C, the same trends were found with differences in δ^{13} C between a wet and a 279 dry year (Grossiord et al., 2014c) than with absolute δ^{13} C values for the dry years only 280 281 (Grossiord, 2014, p.48). We therefore focused our analyses on mixture effects on tree functioning during dry years by comparing values between pure and mixed stands, expecting 282 more negative δ^{13} C values for beech in mixed stands as compared to pure ones if the presence 283 of oak or fir in the mixture induced less competition for water resources. 284

285

2.4.3. Xylem water $\delta^2 H$

To estimate among-tree differences in water uptake sources, we used a method that relies on the natural abundance of stable hydrogen isotopes in the xylem water from branches (Dawson, 1993). During dry spells, an isotopic gradient for hydrogen is established in the top layers of the soil (Clark and Fritz, 1997). The hydrogen isotope composition (δ^2 H, ‰) of water flowing in the xylem, which is the raw sap coming up from the roots, represents the mean signature of all the water sources for the tree's rooting system. Due to very rocky shallow soils, we were not able to obtain a full soil profile at all of our sites. To address niche partitioning in water uptake sources, we therefore analyzed differences in δ^2 H values within triplets, but we were not able to quantitatively estimate a depth of water uptake by trees.

We sampled the same trees selected for the dominant-tree subsample of δ^{13} C analyses. To 295 296 determine the δ^2 H of the xylem water, we sampled a 30 to 40-cm-long branch from each dominant tree in the summer of 2018 during a dry spell at five sites, for a total of 200 samples. 297 We could not visit S4 that year for technical reasons, and therefore we do not have $\delta^2 H$ values 298 299 for that site. Professional climbers cut the branches out of the upper third of the tree crown. We removed bark tissue immediately with a knife to prevent phloem sap from mixing with xylem 300 water. Five-centimeter-long samples were then cut from the branches and placed into closed 301 302 airtight glass vials and stored in cool conditions.

Once in the lab, we stored the branch samples in cool chambers at 4°C to reduce the risk of 303 evaporation. We then extracted water from the branch samples through cold trapping with a 304 custom-made static vacuum cryogenic distillation system (West et al., 2006). The water from 305 306 the branch samples was evaporated by heating the sampling tube in a water bath (65°C), then 307 condensed with liquid nitrogen for 90 minutes in a collection tube. The extracted water was analyzed for ²H/¹H ratios with an elemental analyzer (EA, EuroPyrOH; EuroVector, Milano, 308 Italy) coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime IRMS; Elementar, Manchester, 309 310 UK) at the SILVATECH platform (Silvatech, INRAE, 2018. Structural and functional analysis of tree and wood Facility, Nancy, France). The ²H/¹H ratio of each water sample was 311 determined from six subsamples of 0.2 µL of extracted water and only the last three 312 313 measurements were kept, then averaged for each sample. The first three measurements were discarded to avoid any bias related to a potential "memory effect", meaning a contamination 314 from the previous sample analyzed. The results were expressed as $\delta^2 H$ relatively to the 315 international Vienna-standard mean ocean water standard (V-SMOW) following Eq. 2: 316

317
$$\delta^2 \mathrm{H}\left(\%_0\right) = \left(\frac{R_{sample}}{R_{standard}} - 1\right) * 1000 \tag{2}$$

where R_{sample} and $R_{standard}$ represent the ²H/¹H ratios of the sample and of the V-SMOW standard (IAEA, 1995). The mass spectrometer used in this study had a precision of ± 2.0 ‰ for δ^{2} H values.

We weighed the branch samples after cryo-distillation and placed them in a drying oven for 48 h at 65°C to check if all the water had been extracted. If part of the water had not been completely extracted, we applied a correction to the δ^2 H values since the extracted water had less of the heavier isotope (²H) than the water remaining in the branch. We calculated the theoretical fractionation of the hydrogen isotopes with Eq. 3 to obtain a corrected δ^2 H value (Araguás-Araguás et al., 1995):

327
$$\delta^2 H_{corr} = \delta^2 H_{measured} - \left(\frac{F^{(1/\alpha)} - F}{F - 1} * 1000\right)$$
(3)

where $\delta^2 H_{\text{measured}}$ is the known measured value, $\delta^2 H_{\text{corr}}$ the expected real value if there had been no fractionation during extraction, F the fraction of water remaining in the branch, and α a fixed factor specific to the isotope measured (²H) and to the extraction temperature (65°C). Factor α is calculated from Eq. 4 (Majoube, 1971):

332
$$10^3 * \ln(\alpha) = a * \left(\frac{10^6}{T_K^2}\right) + b * \left(\frac{10^3}{T_K}\right) + c$$
(4)

where T_K is the extraction temperature in degrees Kelvin, and a, b, and c are fixed factors for ²H defined in Majoube (1971) with a = 24.844, b = -76.248, and c = 52.612 (Clark and Fritz, 1997). We applied this correction to all the samples with a water-extraction percentage less than 100%.

All data analyses were conducted including either all trees or those in the dominant-treesubsample.

340 2.5.1. Variability of $\delta^{13}C$ values in pure stands

To assess the variability of δ^{13} C values among sites and species, we compared δ^{13} C values in the pure stands only. First, for site effects, we studied the differences in δ^{13} C values among the six pure beech stands, and among the three stands of pure fir and pure pubescent oak, following the model:

345
$$\delta^{13}C \sim \text{Site} + \text{Triplet} + \text{Site: Triplet}$$
 (5)

We used a linear model for each species with *Site* (S1 to S6) and *Triplet* (1 or 2) as factor variables. We further tested the interaction between *Site* and *Triplet* to reveal the differences between the two triplets at each site.

- Second, we tested for differences in δ^{13} C values between the two species (beech and fir, or beech and oak) in pure stands, following the model:
- 351 $\delta^{13}C \sim \log(DBH) + \text{Species} + \log(DBH) : \text{Species} + 1|\text{Triplet ID}$ (6)

352 We used a linear mixed model with Species as a two-level factor (beech vs. fir, or beech vs. oak) and log(DBH) of the individual tree as a continuous variable. The interaction between 353 log(DBH) and Species was also included in the model. Triplet ID was used as a random factor 354 (Triplet ID is a six-level factor for each type of mixture, identified by site and triplet number, 355 e.g. S1:2 for site 1, triplet 2). The introduction of individual tree DBH as a covariate was used 356 357 as a proxy for light availability, as the biggest trees within triplets are the ones with the most access to light while smaller trees represent the understory trees. This approach allowed us to 358 359 take into account the confounding factor related to light availability in the canopy and its effect on δ^{13} C (McCarroll and Loader, 2004). We used the log transformation of DBH to obtain a linear relationship between *log(DBH)* and δ^{13} C values.

362 2.5.2. Mixture effects on $\delta^{13}C$

We analyzed the effect of species mixture on δ^{13} C values separately by type of mixture (beechfir or beech-oak) with three different types of analyses that made it possible to test for a mixture effect at different levels. First, we tested the mixture effect on individual δ^{13} C values by species separately for the beech-fir and beech-oak sites with all six triplets together following the linear mixed-effect model:

368
$$\delta^{13}C \sim \log(DBH) + Mixture + \log(DBH) : Mixture + 1|Triplet ID$$
 (7)

with *Mixture* (pure vs. mixed stands) as a fixed two-level factor, log(DBH) of each tree as a continuous variable, and *Triplet ID* as a random factor (*Triplet ID* is a six-level factor for each type of mixture, identified by site and triplet number, e.g. S1:2 for site 1, triplet 2). The interaction between log(DBH) and *Mixture* was also included in the model.

Second, we tested the same effect separately for each triplet with the following linear model foreach species and triplet:

375 $\delta^{13}C \sim \log(DBH) + Mixture + \log(DBH): Mixture$ (8)

with *Mixture* as a two-level factor (pure vs. mixed stands), log(DBH) as a covariate. The interaction between log(DBH) and *Mixture* was also included in the model.

Finally, to evaluate any effect of mixture on stand-level functioning, we used a metric called "Net Biodiversity Effect" (NBE, ‰), adapted for complex traits such as δ^{13} C by Grossiord et al. (2013) from Loreau and Hector (2001). We calculated NBE for the dominant-tree subsample only (NBE_{dom}) because with all trees we would not have been able to separate the effects of light availability vs. water availability. NBE_{dom} on the average δ^{13} C of a given mixture of species is the difference between the observed averaged δ^{13} C in the mixture (δ^{13} C₀, ‰) and the expected averaged δ^{13} C in the mixture (δ^{13} C_E, ‰) calculated with species values in pure stands:

386
$$NBE_{dom} = \delta^{13}C_0 - \delta^{13}C_E = \sum_{i=1}^{2} (\delta^{13}C_{0i} * P_{0i}) + \sum_{i=1}^{2} (\delta^{13}C_{Ei} * P_{0i})$$
(9)

387 where $\delta^{13}C_{\text{Oi}}$ is the observed average $\delta^{13}C$ value for dominant trees of species i in mixed stands, 388 $\delta^{13}C_{\text{Ei}}$ is the average $\delta^{13}C$ value for dominant trees of species i in its respective pure stand and 389 P_{Oi} is the proportion of species i in the mixed plot in terms of basal area.

We calculated NBE_{dom} values for each triplet. Based on the precision of the mass spectrometer 390 used for the isotopic measurements in this study (± 0.2 ‰), NBE_{dom} values were considered 391 different from 0.0 ‰ when the difference between observed and expected mixed stand values 392 was greater than \pm 0.4 ‰. A positive difference means that the observed mixed stand had a 393 higher δ^{13} C value than expected based on values from the corresponding pure stands. A negative 394 difference means that the observed mixed stand had a lower δ^{13} C value than expected from 395 pure-stand values. Since there was only one value per triplet, no statistical analyses were 396 possible for this variable, though we were able to compare results across triplets. 397

398 2.5.3. $\delta^2 H$ analysis

403

To test for differences in water uptake sources between species and between pure and mixed stands, we analyzed δ^2 H data separately by type of mixture (beech-fir or beech-oak). We used a linear mixed model including *Triplet ID* as a random factor to test for differences between species and pure or mixed stands. We used the following model:

$$\delta^2 H \sim \text{Species} + \text{Mixture} + \text{Species: Mixture} + 1|\text{Triplet ID}$$
 (10)

with *Species* a two-level factor (beech and fir, or beech and oak), *Mixture* a two-level factor
(pure or mixed), and *Triplet ID* a random factor (*Triplet ID* is a six-level factor for each type of
mixture, identified by site and triplet number, e.g. S1:2 for site 1, triplet 2).

407 2.5.4. *Statistical analyses*

All analyses were performed with R software version 3.6.2 (R Core Team, 2019). Linear mixed 408 effect models were conducted with the lme function of the NLME package (Pinheiro et al., 409 410 2019). Analyses of variance following linear models or linear mixed models were conducted with the Anova function (Type II SS) from the CAR package (Fox and Weisberg, 2019) and 411 post-hoc multiple comparisons were made with the glht function (Tukey contrasts) in the 412 MULTCOMP package (Hothorn et al., 2008). We graphically assessed normality and 413 homoscedasticity of all model residuals. For mixed effect models, we used a pseudo R-squared 414 in the R package MUMIN (Barton, 2019) to determine the variance explained by both the fixed 415 terms only (marginal coefficient of determination, R^{2}_{m}) and the entire model including the 416 random terms (conditional coefficient of determination, R²_c). 417

419 **3. Results**

420 3.1. Site and species patterns of $\delta^{13}C$ in pure stands

421 3.1.1. Site and triplet effects on $\delta^{13}C$ within species

In pure beech stands, mean δ^{13} C values for the selected dry years for all sampled trees ranged 422 from -27.9 \pm 0.8 ‰ at S1:1 to -25.7 \pm 0.5 ‰ at S2:2 (Fig. 3a). There was a significant site effect 423 on δ^{13} C values (Eq. 5, P < 0.001): the trees at S1 had significantly lower δ^{13} C values than at the 424 other five sites (Fig. 3a). Mean δ^{13} C values differed significantly between the two triplets of a 425 site at S6 only (Fig 3a). The range for the dominant-tree subsample was similar to the range for 426 all trees, but the δ^{13} C values were higher, with beech mean δ^{13} C values ranging from -27.6 ± 427 0.4 ‰ at S1:2 to -25.4 ± 0.4 ‰ at S4:2 (Fig. 4a). As for all trees, there was a significant site 428 effect on δ^{13} C values (Eq. 5, P < 0.001): the trees at S1 had significantly lower δ^{13} C values than 429 the trees at the other five sites (Fig. 4a). 430

In pure fir stands, mean δ^{13} C values for all sampled trees ranged from -28.0 ± 0.6 ‰ at S1:2 to 431 -25.2 ± 0.3 ‰ at S3:1 (Fig. 3b). There was a significant site effect on δ^{13} C values (Eq. 5, P < 432 0.001): the trees at S1 had significantly lower δ^{13} C values than the trees at S2 and S3 (Fig. 3b). 433 Mean δ^{13} C values differed significantly between the two triplets of a site at S3 only (Fig 3b). 434 For the dominant-tree subsample, the range was narrower and the δ^{13} C values were higher, with 435 fir mean δ^{13} C values ranging from -26.9 ± 0.7 ‰ at S1:2 to -24.8 ± 0.3 ‰ at S3:2 (Fig. 4b). As 436 for all trees, there was a significant site effect on δ^{13} C values (Eq. 5, P < 0.001): the trees at S1 437 had significantly lower δ^{13} C values than the trees at the other five sites (Fig. 4b). 438

In pure pubescent oak stands, mean δ^{13} C values for all sampled trees ranged from -26.1 ± 0.3 % at S6:1 to -24.8 ± 0.4 % at S4:2 (Fig. 3c). There was a significant site effect on δ^{13} C values (Eq. 6, P < 0.001): all three sites had significantly different δ^{13} C values (Fig. 3c). For the dominant-tree subsample, the range was narrower, but the mean δ^{13} C values were similar to all trees: oak mean δ^{13} C values ranged from -25.9 ± 0.7 ‰ at S6:1 to -24.5 ± 0.4 ‰ at S4:2 (Fig. 444 4c). We observed no significant differences among the three sites or between triplets within 445 sites (Fig. 4c).

446 Figure 3 HERE; size: 2 columns; Colour online, B&W in print

447 Figure 4 HERE; size: 2 columns; Colour online, B&W in print

448 3.1.2. Species differences in $\delta^{13}C$

For pure stands including data for all the trees, species effect was not significant between beech 449 and fir in the more northern sites (P = 0.38), but was significant between beech and oak in the 450 more southern sites (P < 0.001). When including log(DBH) as a covariate in the model (Eq. 6), 451 log(DBH) was always significant. Beech had significantly lower $\delta^{13}C$ values than fir in the 452 northern sites or than oak in the southern sites (Table B1). The interaction between log(DBH)453 and δ^{13} C was significant with all trees (Table B1), meaning that the slope of the relationship 454 between log(DBH) and $\delta^{13}C$ values differed between species, although it was always positive. 455 456 In the northern sites, fir had a stronger positive slope (b=1.76) than beech (b=0.85). In the southern sites, beech had a stronger positive slope (b=2.23) than oak (b=0.85). 457

For pure stands with only the dominant-tree subsample, species effect was significant for beech-458 fir sites (P < 0.001) and for beech-oak sites (P < 0.01) with or without log(DBH) in the model. 459 When including log(DBH) in the models (Eq. 6), log(DBH) was not significant, nor was the 460 interaction between *Species* and *log(DBH)* (Table B1). Beech had significantly lower δ^{13} C 461 values than fir in the northern sites or than oak in the southern sites (Table B1). Mean species 462 $\delta^{13}C$ values of the dominant-tree subsample was -26.5 \pm 0.4 ‰ for beech and -25.8 \pm 0.3 ‰ for 463 fir at the northern sites, whereas it was -25.8 ± 0.2 % for beech and -25.3 ± 0.3 % for oak at 464 the southern sites. 465

466 3.2. Mixture effects on $\delta^{13}C$

467 *3.2.1. Effect of dbh*

Before analyzing the mixture effects on δ^{13} C values, we assessed the effect of log(DBH) in both 468 469 the global (Eq. 7) and triplet-level (Eq. 8) models for each species. The effect of log(DBH) was 470 significant for all four global models when all the sampled trees were included (Table 2). At the triplet-level, log(DBH) was significant for beech, except at S1:2 and S2:2. It was significant 471 472 for all fir triplets and for half of the oak triplets (Table 3). The positive relationships between δ^{13} C values and log(DBH) are consistent with expectations from the literature and with the 473 impact of canopy light gradients on leaf or needle δ^{13} C (McCarroll and Loader, 2004). When 474 475 only the dominant-tree subsample was used in the models, the effect of log(DBH) on $\delta^{13}C$ was not significant in the global models nor in most triplets, except at S4:2 for beech and S2:2 for 476 fir (Table 2, Table 3). The absence of significant effects for the dominant-tree subsample was 477 probably the consequence of our sampling design: this subsample only included trees that 478 received direct vertical light and for which the possible impact of canopy light gradients on 479 δ^{13} C (McCarroll and Loader, 2004) was not expected. 480

- 481 Table 2 HERE; size: 2 columns
- 482 Table 3 HERE; size: 2 columns
- 483 *3.2.2. Beech-fir sites*

At the tree level for the global model, there were no significant mixture effects on δ^{13} C values during the selected dry years, either for all trees or the dominant-tree subsample (Table 2). This result indicates that beech and fir trees in the mixed stands had statistically similar δ^{13} C values to their values in pure stands for a given DBH (Table 2). The interaction between *log(DBH)* and *Mixture* was significant for fir with all trees: both pure and mixed stands had a positive relationship between *log(DBH)* and δ^{13} C values, but pure stands had a stronger slope (b=1.69) than mixed stands (b=1.35). Despite this difference in the slopes of the relationship, it did not result in a statistical difference between pure and mixed stands. We also included the interaction term for the dominant-tree subsample alone, although we did not expect any interaction between log(DBH) and *Mixture* as (i) trees of this subsample should receive the same levels of light and (ii) because none of the triplets, except one for fir, had a significant log(DBH) effect. There was a small interaction effect for fir in the global model with dominant trees (Table 2).

At the triplet level (Table 3, Fig. 5a, 6a), there were no significant mixture effects for beech in 496 any of the triplets, either for all trees or the dominant-tree subsample. For fir, at the triplet level 497 for all trees, a significant mixture effect was found for triplets S1:1 and S2:1 only. In both these 498 triplets, the models predicted higher δ^{13} C values in mixed stands than in pure stands (Table 3). 499 For fir, only triplet S3:2 had a significant interaction between *log(DBH)* and *Mixture*: the pure 500 stand had a steeper slope (b=2.22) than the mixed stand (b=1.33). There were no significant 501 interactions between log(DBH) and Mixture for beech. There was no mixture effect for fir with 502 503 the dominant-tree subsample except for triplet S2:2 (Table 3). Triplet S1:1 for fir had a 504 significant interaction effect when including all trees (Table 3), but this was probably driven by 505 the differences in DBH of the dominant trees between stands (Table 1).

506 Three triplets had NBE_{dom} values close to 0.0 % and the three other triplets had values below -507 0.4 % (Fig. 7).

508 *3.2.3. Beech-oak sites*

509 When including all trees in the global model, we found a significant mixture effect on beech 510 δ^{13} C, with higher δ^{13} C values in mixed stands compared to pure ones (Fig. 5b, Table 2). There 511 was no significant effect for oak (Fig. 5b, Table 2). We no longer observed the significant effect 512 for beech when we restricted the analysis to the dominant-tree subsample (Fig. 6b, Table 2). 513 The interaction between *log(DBH)* and *Mixture* was not significant for either species (Table 2).

At the triplet level, we observed significant mixture effects for both beech and oak (Table 3). 514 For beech, when including all the trees, δ^{13} C values were higher in mixed stands than in pure 515 stands in triplets S4:2 and S5:2 (Table 3). This result held true for the beech dominant-tree 516 subsample at S4:2, but not at S5:2 (Table 3). S4:2 was the only triplet with a significant 517 interaction effects between log(DBH) and Mixture for beech (Table 3), with a steeper slope for 518 mixed stands (b=3.78) than pure stands (b=1.69). However, this did not change the mixture 519 effect for this triplet. For oak, when all the trees were included, δ^{13} C values were significantly 520 lower in mixed stands at S4:2 and significantly higher at S5:1 (Table 3). We did not observe 521 these effects for oak when testing the dominant-tree subsample only (Table 3). There were no 522 523 interaction effects between *log(DBH)* and *Mixture* for oak (Table 3). In this region, there was a trend toward the lack of a net biodiversity effect: most NBE_{dom} values 524 were close to 0.0 ‰ (Fig.7), except in triplet S6:1 where it was below -0.4 ‰. 525 Figure 5 HERE; size: 1 column; Colour online, B&W in print 526 Figure 6 HERE; size: 1 column; Colour online, B&W in print 527 Figure 7 HERE; size: 1.5 column; Colour online, B&W in print 528 *3.3. Xylem-water* $\delta^2 H$ 529 At the beech-fir sites, we observed a significant interaction effect between Species and Mixture 530 (P=0.002) (Table B2). There was a significant mixture effect on the δ^2 H values for beech, but 531 not for fir. More specifically, beech δ^2 H values were lower in mixed stands than in pure stands, 532 except for triplet S3:2 (Fig. 8). There was also a significant difference between species for $\delta^2 H$ 533 values in both pure and mixed stands (P < 0.001) (Table B2): beech δ^2 H values were lower than 534 those of fir, except in triplet S1:1 (Fig. 8). The difference between beech and fir was larger in 535

mixed stands (estimate: 15.3 ± 1.4 ‰) than in pure stands (estimate: 9.1 ± 1.3 ‰).

- 537 In beech-oak sites, we observed no mixture effect on δ^2 H values for either beech or oak (P=0.33)
- 538 (Fig. 8), no differences between species (P=0.71), and no interaction effect (P=0.16) (Table
- 539 B2).
- 540 Figure 8 HERE; size: 2 columns; Colour online, B&W in print

541 **4. Discussion**

542 4.1. Variability of $\delta^{13}C$ values in pure stands

543 *4.1.1. Site effect for beech*

Our range of mean δ^{13} C values in beech tree-rings for pure stands was close to those reported 544 in the literature (Fig. 3a, 4a). For instance, in Germany, at the heart of beech's distribution 545 range, mean beech δ^{13} C value was -26.7 ‰ during the very dry year of 2003 (Schwarz and 546 Bauhus, 2019). In northern Spain, the southern-most area of beech distribution, mean δ^{13} C value 547 was -26.5 ‰ at a drier lower-elevation site and -27.5 ‰ at a wetter higher-elevation site for the 548 period 2000 to 2003 (Peñuelas et al., 2008). We therefore recorded one of the least negative 549 mean δ^{13} C values for beech published to date, i.e. -25.4 ± 0.4 ‰ at S4:2 for the dominant-tree 550 subsample (Fig.4a). The origin of the high δ^{13} C values observed in our study can be explained 551 (i) by our choice to select, by design, a range of years characterized by severe summer droughts 552 (2003-2007), which undoubtedly triggered high tree water use efficiency (Saurer et al., 1995), 553 and (ii) by the fact that some of our sites were at the range limit of precipitation and temperature 554 555 conditions for beech in Europe (Fig. 2).

We found that the mean δ^{13} C values for beech in pure stands did not differ among sites except 556 at S1, either for all trees or for the dominant-tree subsample (Fig. 3a, 4a), though we had 557 558 expected stronger differences due to the wide range of climatic conditions across our sites (Fig. 2). Plant tissue δ^{13} C is a functional trait that is highly sensitive to differences in environmental 559 conditions (Farquhar et al., 1989). However, different environmental conditions can have 560 opposite effects on δ^{13} C values, and the lack of difference in δ^{13} C among the five sites (S2 to 561 S6) could be explained by a combination of conditions acting in opposite directions. We explain 562 the significantly lower mean δ^{13} C values for beech at S1 (Fig. 3a, 4b) by the fact that S1 has 563 the wettest and coolest climate among the six sites (Fig.2). Site S1 also had relatively low water 564

stress and was the least affected by water deficit during the period 2003-2007 covered by ourstudy (Table A3).

567 *4.1.2.* Species differences

The pure beech stands had significantly lower δ^{13} C values than did fir or oak in the respective 568 sites (Table B1). This indicated lower mean water use efficiency for beech, even though the 569 magnitude of the differences between species remained low. For beech and fir, lower $\delta^{13}C$ 570 values for beech are consistent with the study by Schwarz and Bauhus (2019) during the 2003 571 drought in Germany and Croatia. For beech and pubescent oak, to our knowledge, no studies 572 have compared δ^{13} C values of mature pubescent oak with other species. Differences in δ^{13} C 573 values among species can be explained by physiological and morphological characteristics 574 (McCarroll and Loader, 2004) or by differences in canopy structure in pure stands. Yet, we 575 included a dendrometric variable (log(DBH)) in the statistical tests to take these characteristics 576 into account when testing for species differences. Species effects remained significant in the 577 578 models with the dominant-tree subsample while the effect of log(DBH) did not (Table B1). We can therefore conclude that species differences in $\delta^{13}C$ were mainly related to intrinsic 579 differences among species in water use efficiency, and not just to canopy structure factors. 580

As expected, a large part of the variability in δ^{13} C values was explained by the log(DBH)581 variable when we included all trees (Table B1). The relationship between $\delta^{13}C$ values and 582 log(DBH) was always positive. This is consistent with the fact that gradients in light availability 583 in the canopy strongly influence δ^{13} C values (McCarroll and Loader, 2004). The slopes of this 584 relationship differed between species: fir always had a stronger slope than beech in northern 585 586 sites, indicating that small fir trees were more suppressed for light than small beech trees in their respective pure stands. As both species have high shade tolerance (Niinemets and 587 Valladares, 2006), this could simply be due to the canopy structure of fir trees leading to lower 588

light availability for dominated fir trees. Beech had a stronger slope than oak in the southern 589 590 sites, indicating that small beech trees were more suppressed for light than small oak trees in pure stands. As beech is more shade tolerant than oak (Niinemets and Valladares, 2006), this 591 could be explained by the fact that small beech trees are growing in light-suppressed 592 environments whereas oak trees, even when small, seem to only grow in environments with a 593 higher light availability leading to less variability in δ^{13} C values. These results show that in 594 595 addition to intrinsic species differences in water use efficiency, canopy structure and light interception also influenced water and carbon functioning in pure stands . 596

- 597 4.2. Mixture effects on $\delta^{13}C$
- 598 *4.2.1. Beech-fir sites*

For beech, there was no mixture effect on δ^{13} C values during dry years when mixed with fir 599 (Table 2 & 3, Fig. 5a & 6a), despite strong differences in functional traits between these two 600 species. The lack of mixture effect is consistent with several studies on beech-fir mixtures. For 601 602 instance, at the same sites, Jourdan et al. (2019a) reported no effect of the proportion of fir on 603 the drought resistance of beech, estimated with growth data at the neighborhood tree-to-tree level. In another study in Romania, no mixture effect was observed for beech on δ^{13} C 604 differences between a wet and a dry year, either at the species level (Forrester et al., 2016) or 605 606 at the stand level (Grossiord et al., 2014c). Recently, Schwarz & Bauhus (2019) looked at the resistance to a drought event for four sites with beech-fir mixtures in Germany and Croatia and 607 found no mixture effect on δ^{13} C, even though they observed long-term positive effects of 608 mixture on radial growth. 609

For fir, the influence of mixture on δ^{13} C values during dry years was more variable (Table 2 & 3, Fig. 5a & 6a). We observed that mixture effects for fir differed among sites, between triplets within a given site, or according to the type of dataset we used. This suggests that local

environmental conditions and stand structure strongly influenced the outcome of the tests for 613 614 fir and that mixture effects may play a minor role in explaining observed differences. Consequently, we cannot conclude that including fir in mixtures with beech will mitigate fir 615 exposure to drought. The existing literature has highlighted contrasted patterns for fir in 616 mixtures with beech. Some studies observed that the sensitivity of fir to drought was reduced 617 when mixed with beech in drier sites (Lebourgeois et al., 2013; Gazol and Camarero, 2016), 618 619 while other studies found no effect (Forrester et al., 2016; Schwarz and Bauhus, 2019), or even a negative effect (Jourdan et al., 2019a). Differences in site conditions could explain 620 discrepancies in the observed patterns between our results and previous studies, as mixture 621 622 effects may change along resource gradients (Forrester and Bauhus, 2016). The interaction effects detected for fir, with all trees, between log(DBH) and stand composition suggest that 623 there was less variability in δ^{13} C values due to light availability in mixed stands. In pure stands, 624 small fir trees had lower light availability (more negative δ^{13} C values) than in mixed ones. This 625 could be explained by the fact that fir trees in mixed stands received more light than in pure 626 stands due to canopy opening with the presence of beech and to phenological differences 627 between fir and beech. However, these interactions did not impact the detected mixture effects. 628 At the stand level with both species, there was no single mixture effect pattern among sites and 629 triplets for beech-fir sites (Fig. 7). NBE_{dom} was either neutral or negative, meaning that mixtures 630 had more negative δ^{13} C values, and potentially lower water stress, than expected from pure 631 stands. Within each site, triplet NBE_{dom} values were often neutral for one triplet and negative 632

for the other one. As a reminder, these triplets were not selected as replicates, but were designed to cover local variations in environmental conditions and stand structure; within-site variability was therefore not surprising. The neutral or negative NBE_{dom} values could be explained by differences in above-ground features, such as stand structure, proportion of shaded subcanopy or canopy packing levels, or in below-ground processes, such as complementarity or facilitation

for water acquisition (Grossiord, 2019). The species-interaction effects between beech and fir 638 639 for some triplets may be attenuated or even masked by local differences in environmental 640 conditions, which could not be controlled for in these stands (Metz et al., 2016). Furthermore, opposite processes that may strongly influence photosynthesis (e.g. light gradients) or water 641 use (e.g. depth of water uptake) in mixed forests may actually cancel each other out and result 642 in the absence of overall mixture effects (Forrester and Bauhus, 2016). However, the overall 643 result of NBE_{dom} for mixed beech-fir stands is that δ^{13} C values were never less negative than 644 expected, suggesting a potentially lower water stress in mixtures. These results differ from the 645 mixture effects tested for each species separately. Differences between species-level and stand-646 647 level results have been observed before (Forrester et al., 2016) and can result from opposite trends of mixture effects between the species (Toïgo et al., 2015). For the overall stand δ^{13} C 648 values, beech-fir mixtures were not detrimental in terms of functioning during dry years. We 649 650 will discuss potential differences in water sources among species and stand composition below; however, we were not able to characterize above-ground influences in the current study. 651

652 *4.2.2. Beech-oak sites*

The presence of pubescent oak did not decrease beech exposure to drought. In fact, with all 653 trees in the global model (Table 2) and for two individual triplets (Table 3), the interaction with 654 pubescent oak even led to higher beech δ^{13} C values, indicating a higher drought exposure of 655 beech in mixed stands compared to pure ones. In the global model (Table 2) and in one of these 656 two triplets (S5:2, Table 3), the absence of any mixture effect for the dominant-tree subsample 657 suggested that these effects might be related to the social status of the trees, even though we 658 were not able to demonstrate this. The interaction effect between log(DBH) and $\delta^{13}C$ values in 659 S4:2 for beech was opposite to what was observed for fir: there was less variability in δ^{13} C 660 values due to light availability in the pure stand than in the mixed one. However, this effect was 661 mostly driven by a few bigger trees in the pure stand (Table 1) and did not affect the observed 662

mixture effect. Comparing these results with previous work on beech-pubescent oak mixtures 663 is impossible as this is the first study to look at beech δ^{13} C response in interaction with 664 pubescent oak. Beech δ^{13} C responses when mixed with another oak species (sessile oak, 665 Quercus petraea) in German forests indicated that it was less exposed to drought than in pure 666 667 stands (Forrester et al., 2016). Compared to sessile oak, pubescent oak is more drought tolerant (Niinemets and Valladares, 2006) and could be more competitive than sessile oak when mixed 668 669 with beech. Furthermore, when looking at growth response patterns to drought in mixture with different oak species, beech showed very inconsistent results so far, with positive (Pretzsch et 670 al., 2013; Quercus petraea), negative (Vanhellemont et al., 2019; Quercus robur) or neutral 671 672 (Jourdan et al., 2019a; Quercus pubescens) patterns. Our results underline the current 673 uncertainty on the choice of silvicultural practices that forest managers must make today to mitigate drought impact on beech productivity along its southern margins under future climate 674 675 conditions.

The presence of beech did not influence the physiological functioning of pubescent oak during dry summers in this region (Fig. 5b, 6b, Table 2, 3). As with beech, we were not able to reveal any general trend for beech-oak interactions under severe drought conditions. Our study suggests that, at least in this region, managing pubescent oak with beech does not lead to clear mitigation of climate change impacts on oak response to drought.

681

4.2.3. Impact of sampling design and use of absolute $\delta^{13}C$ values

Our results emphasize how the sampling design (all trees or dominant ones only) and level of analysis (tree or stand) of diversity-ecosystem functioning studies may influence the outcome of mixture effect tests. Limiting the sampling design to dominant trees when looking at mixture effects on the δ^{13} C response of trees to drought has been the typical approach to date (Grossiord et al., 2014c; Metz et al., 2016; Schwarz and Bauhus, 2019). However, we show that this choice

may bias the outcome of these mixture effect tests. Selecting dominant trees only is, indeed, 687 pertinent with regards to δ^{13} C, as dominant trees are those with the greatest sunlit leaf areas and 688 therefore potential carbon (photosynthesis) and water (transpiration) exchange with the 689 atmosphere. However, not including suppressed trees in these analyses may bias the stand-level 690 patterns of mixture effects, as the sensitivity to drought of suppressed and dominant trees in 691 mixed stands may differ (Mérian and Lebourgeois, 2011). This highlights the need for a 692 693 standardization of protocols in mixed-species forest studies in accordance with the goal of the study (e.g. ecophysiological or forest management questions). 694

A limitation of this study, as mentioned in the methods, was the use of absolute δ^{13} C values for 695 dry years instead of the difference in δ^{13} C between wet and dry years. Calculating a difference 696 between the δ^{13} C of a wet and a dry year would allow analyzing a direct response of trees to 697 drought and compare this response in pure and mixed stands independently of the micro-698 environmental variability among stands within a given triplet. However, in a study looking at 699 diversity effects on drought responses of δ^{13} C, the same trends were found with δ^{13} C differences 700 between wet and dry years (Grossiord et al., 2014c) than with absolute δ^{13} C values for the dry 701 702 years only (Grossiord, 2014, p.48). Then, this methodological caveat should not prevent us from 703 interpreting mixture effects, especially since we took precautions to avoid over-interpreting 704 these effects at the triplet scale.

- 705 *4.3. Complementarity in water uptake sources*
- 706
- 4.3.1. Beech-fir sites

At the more northern beech-fir sites, during the 2018 summer drought, we observed a plasticity in the depth of water uptake for beech at these sites between pure and mixed stands (Fig. 8), which is consistent with the known plasticity of the species in terms of rooting traits and depth of water uptake (Brinkmann et al., 2018). When competing with fir, beech seemed to have a deeper mean depth of water uptake than when competing with beech only. These results are in accordance with previous studies which show a shift of beech fine roots down to deeper soil horizons when competing with coniferous tree species (Bolte and Villanueva, 2006; Grossiord et al., 2014a). Plasticity in functional traits can be the result of abiotic or biotic interactions (Valladares et al., 2007). Therefore, the shift in beech water uptake depth could be explained either by a response to the competition with fir roots in the same soil horizons, or by a response to a depletion in soil water availability in the topsoil (Brinkmann et al., 2018).

In the mixed stands, xylem δ^2 H values showed that beech tended to uptake water from deeper 718 soil layers than fir did (Table B2, Fig 8), suggesting niche complementarity for water uptake 719 720 between the two species. This kind of complementarity between species in water use is assumed to partly explain positive biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships (Grossiord, 2019). 721 However, it has rarely been linked to mixture effects on plant growth (Mueller et al., 2013; 722 Bachmann et al., 2015) or functional traits under drought (Verheyen et al., 2008; Goisser et al., 723 2016). In our study, the absence of a clear mixture effect on δ^{13} C for both beech and fir, despite 724 725 a complementarity in water uptake, may be explained by several factors. First, our results did 726 not allow us to quantify the real gain in soil water availability during these dry periods for beech. Indeed, the shift in δ^2 H between pure and mixed stands was slight (10 ‰ on average) 727 728 and may indicate only a small difference in water uptake depth and soil water content. Second, below-ground processes may not be the main drivers of the mixture effects for these species in 729 730 the study region. Above-ground processes could well be the major drivers, but they were not tested in this study. Third, as discussed by Goisser et al. (2016), the impact of species mixture 731 732 on soil water availability may vary across seasons. The time scale of the processes associated with our $\delta^2 H$ or $\delta^{13} C$ approaches were different: $\delta^2 H$ gave a one-shot image of the mean 733 signature of soil water extracted during the summer, whereas the δ^{13} C values gave an integrated 734 measurement of carbon and water acquisition and use over five years with dry summers. 735

736 *4.3.2. Beech-oak sites*

737 For the more southern beech-oak sites, there were no signs of complementarity or niche differentiation in water acquisition for either species (Table B2, Fig. 8). This result is consistent 738 with the absence of mixture effects on δ^{13} C for beech and pubescent oak in most triplets. The 739 absence of plasticity in water uptake for beech when mixed with pubescent oak is interesting to 740 note in comparison to the beech-fir sites. It suggests that the presence of pubescent oak did not 741 742 induce any changes in beech water uptake compared to pure beech stands. The shallow soils in our sites (especially S5) might be one reason for the absence of differences in rooting depth 743 between the species. We did not find data in the literature on rooting depth of pubescent oak. 744 745 However, Lebourgeois and Jabiol (2002) have shown that beech rooting depth, compared to two other oak species (Quercus petraea and Quercus robur), is more sensitive to constraints 746 but also that in the absence of strong constraints, beech and oak species rooting profiles are 747 similar. In this part of the beech distribution area, during extreme dry summers, beech and 748 749 pubescent oak displayed a functional redundancy in their below-ground water uptake. Mixing 750 these two species to improve beech access to soil water in southern France may not be an 751 appropriate forest management strategy.

753 **5.** Conclusion

Our study was designed to help decision-making for beech forest management strategies 754 755 adapted to more frequent and extreme droughts in the future, particularly at the limits of the 756 distribution area of beech. Overall, we found no major mixture effect on drought exposure for beech, although there was a high variability in the outcome of mixture effects at the triplet scale. 757 In the northern part of our study, mixing beech with fir had no effect on beech δ^{13} C values 758 759 during dry years. This result is in accordance with a growing body of literature showing the lack of a species-interaction effect on beech drought resistance. Managing mixed stands of 760 beech and fir does not seem to help mitigate drought impacts for either of the two species, 761 despite an observed complementarity in water uptake. In the southern part of our study, mixture 762 effects on beech were mostly neutral, although beech seemed to be more exposed to drought in 763 764 mixed stands with pubescent oak at some sites. In a region at the limits of the distribution area of beech, this study allowed us to conclude that managing beech in mixed stands with silver fir 765 766 or pubescent oak does not buffer drought impacts during dry years. Yet, in the long term, as 767 extreme droughts will become more frequent, beech-fir mixtures should not be detrimental to 768 beech response to drought, while it might be in mixtures with pubescent oak. In the southernmost distribution regions of beech, an overall assessment of multi-criteria potential 769 770 benefits for each type of mixture should then be conducted in order to take management decisions. 771

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779 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Soline Martin-Blangy: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, 780 Visualization, Writing - original draft. Marie Charru: Conceptualization, Methodology, 781 Investigation, Writing - original draft, Supervision. Sylvain Gérard: Investigation, Writing -782 783 review & editing. Hervé Jactel: Conceptualization, Resources, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Writing - review & editing. Marion Jourdan: Resources, Investigation, Writing -784 review & editing. Xavier Morin: Conceptualization, Investigation, Resources, Writing -785 786 review & editing. Damien Bonal: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Writing original draft, Supervision. 787

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1062 Tables

triplet, and plot.

Site	Triplet	Plot	DBH (cm)					
			Beech	Fir	Oak	Other sp.		
S 1	1	Pure beech	41.9 (8-105)	_	_	19.1 (13.4-24.2)		
S 1	1	Pure fir	8.3 (8.3-8.3)	37 (8.6-92.9)	_	21.5 (10.5-49.3)		
S1	1	Mixed	39 (28.3-49.7)	22.9 (7.6-38.2)	_	18.5 (9.2-34.4)		
S 1	2	Pure beech	47 (28.3-59.8)	14.1 (5.7-28.6)	_	_		
S 1	2	Pure fir	_	32.6 (8-79.9)	_	26.7 (13.1-50)		
S 1	2	Mixed	42.4 (9.5-76.4)	28.3 (7.3-91.7)	_	45.2 (45.2-45.2)		
S2	1	Pure beech	16.5 (8.3-46.8)	_	_	19.4 (14.3-26.7)		
S2	1	Pure fir	_	24.2 (8-42)	_	23.6 (23.6-23.6)		
S 2	1	Mixed	14.2 (7.3-40.1)	19.6 (7.6-57.3)	_	10.2 (8.6-14.3)		
S 2	2	Pure beech	47.4 (35.3-58.3)	17.3 (12.7-23.9)	_	_		
S 2	2	Pure fir	15.3 (15.3-15.3)	42.4 (15.6-57.3)	_	_		
S 2	2	Mixed	36.8 (30.2-44.2)	27.7 (12.7-57.6)	_	_		
S 3	1	Pure beech	25.3 (9.2-38.8)	_	_	_		
S 3	1	Pure fir	18.8 (18.1-19.4)	35.9 (15-47.7)	_	_		
S 3	1	Mixed	14.9 (7.6-23.9)	44.8 (9.5-59.8)	_	_		
S 3	2	Pure beech	29.9 (16.6-53.5)	20.4 (20.4-20.4)	_	_		
S 3	2	Pure fir	19.2 (8-30.2)	17.1 (7.3-41.7)	_	15 (10.8-19.1)		
S 3	2	Mixed	24 (16.2-32.1)	15.2 (7.3-60.5)	_	30.6 (28.6-32.5)		
S 4	1	Pure beech	24.9 (7.6-68.1)	_	_	13.3 (11.8-14.3)		
S 4	1	Pure oak	11.4 (7.6-15.3)	_	18.3 (7.6-42.7)	10.7 (7.6-15.9)		
S 4	1	Mixed	16.1 (8.6-24.5)	_	20.7 (11.1-27.4)	18.9 (8.3-39.8)		
S 4	2	Pure beech	22.6 (8.6-64.3)	_	11.1 (11.1-11.1)	_		
S 4	2	Pure oak	13.4 (13.4-13.4)	_	15.2 (8.9-24.8)	9.7 (9.2-10.2)		
S 4	2	Mixed	14.4 (7-27.7)	_	17.1 (12.1-22.9)	13.8 (12.4-15.3)		
S5	1	Pure beech	17.1 (7.3-28.6)	_	12.9 (8.9-16.9)	13.7 (8-19.4)		
S5	1	Pure oak	_	_	18.7 (10.5-32.5)	18.6 (9.2-29)		
S5	1	Mixed	14.5 (8-22)	_	14.7 (7.6-21)	10.4 (7.3-16.2)		
S5	2	Pure beech	16.6 (7-27.1)	_	_	13.8 (8.3-23.6)		
S5	2	Pure oak	_	_	15.6 (10.8-22.9)	10.1 (7-13.4)		
S5	2	Mixed	13.7 (7.3-23.6)	_	15.9 (7.6-20.7)	9.2 (7-15.3)		
S 6	1	Pure beech	40.4 (29.6-53.2)	_	_	16 (9.9-29)		
S 6	1	Pure oak	_	_	36.1 (28-45.5)	12.8 (7-22.3)		
S 6	1	Mixed	30.6 (9.5-45.2)	_	34.6 (20.4-42.3)	15.5 (7.3-34.4)		
S 6	2	Pure beech	19.6 (7.6-35.7)	_	17.2 (14-19.4)	13.3 (7.6-25.5)		
S 6	2	Pure oak	_	_	19 (9.9-38.2)	8.2 (7-9.9)		
S 6	2	Mixed	21.3 (8.6-31.8)	_	18 (8.3-26.7)	11.3 (7.6-15.9)		

- 1066 *Note*: Other tree species represent less than 20% of the total basal area of the plots (12% on average). Most
- 1067 common species are Acer pseudoplatanus, Acer campestre, Ilex aquifolium, Sorbus torminalis and Taxus
- 1068 baccata.

			Beech-	fir sites					Beech-oal	c sites			
		Be	eech		Fir			Beech			Oak		
	χ^2	df	Р	χ^2	df	Р	χ^2	df	Р	χ^2	df	Р	
All trees		154			213			191			189		
log(DBH)	27	1	<.001***	268	1	<.001***	185	1	<.001***	21	1	<.001***	
Mixture	0	1	0.77	2	1	0.13	26	1	$<\!\!.001^{***} \\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!>\!\delta^{13}C_p$	1	1	0.35	
log(DBH):Mixture	0	1	0.52	4	1	0.04*	1	1	0.24	1	1	0.30	
$R^2_m(R^2_c)$			0.16 (0.65)			0.40 (0.76)			0.41 (0.68)			0.10 (0.46)	
Dominant-tree subsample		52			48			50			58		
log(DBH)	0	1	0.58	3	1	0.07	0	1	0.90	1	1	0.27	
Mixture	2	1	0.21	1	1	0.25	0	1	0.49	2	1	0.15	
log(DBH):Mixture	2	1	0.14	5	1	0.02*	4	1	0.05	1	1	0.35	
$R^2_m (R^2_c)$			0.03 (0.52)			0.10 (0.62)			0.06 (0.26)			0.05 (0.32)	

Table 2 Linear mixed model output for *Mixture* effects and log(DBH) on $\delta^{13}C$ by type of

1072 mixture and species (Eq. 7).

1073

1074 Note: Stars indicate significant log(DBH), Mixture and interaction effects. Mixture is a two-level factor (pure vs. mixed). For significant *Mixture* effects, the direction of the estimate is indicated by $\delta^{13}C_p > \delta^{13}C_m$ if pure stands 1075 1076 have a higher δ^{13} C estimate than mixed stands (i.e. mixture improves response to water stress compared to pure stands), and $\delta^{13}C_m > \delta^{13}C_p$ if mixed stands have a higher $\delta^{13}C$ estimate than pure stands. χ^2 : chi square test results 1077 1078 for type "II" ANOVA. df: degrees of freedom. P: p-value for fixed terms. Triplet ID is used as a random factor in 1079 all eight models. A pseudo R-squared for mixed effect models was used to determine the variance explained by 1080 the two fixed terms only (marginal coefficient of determination, R_m^2) and the entire model including the random 1081 terms (conditional coefficient of determination, R²_c).

1082

1070

		Beech			Fir		Oak				
Site+Triplet	Site+Triplet $\begin{array}{c} P - & P - \\ log(DBH) \end{array}$ P - Mixture $\begin{array}{c} log(DBH): \\ Mixture \end{array}$		P - log(DBH): Mixture	P - log(DBH)	P - Mixture	P - log(DBH): Mixture	P - log(DBH)	P - Mixture	P - log(DBH): Mixture		
All trees											
S1:1	0.03*	0.13	0.67	<0.001***	$<\!\!0.01^{**} \\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!> \delta^{13}C_p$	0.7	_	_	_		
S1:2	0.18	0.24	0.31	< 0.001***	0.94	0.15	_	_	_		
S2:1	< 0.001***	0.62	0.45	<0.001***	$<\!\!0.01^{**} \\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!> \delta^{13}C_p$	0.35	_	_	_		
S2:2	0.42	0.85	0.61	< 0.001***	0.66	0.09	_	_	_		
S3:1	0.03*	0.44	0.62	< 0.01**	0.09	0.77	_	-	_		
S3:2	< 0.01**	0.54	0.82	< 0.001***	0.87	0.04*	_	_	_		
S4:1	< 0.001***	0.06	0.6	_	_	_	0.04*	0.47	0.49		
S4:2	< 0.001***	$\substack{<0.001^{***}\\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!>\!\delta^{13}C_p}$	<0.01**	-	-	_	0.02*	$\begin{array}{c} 0.02^{*} \\ \delta^{13}C_{p} \!\!\!\!> \! \delta^{13}C_{m} \end{array}$	0.75		
\$5:1	< 0.001***	0.32	0.39	_	_	-	0.06	${}^{<0.01^{**}}_{\delta^{13}C_m}{}^{>}\delta^{^{13}C_p}$	0.83		
\$5:2	<0.001***	$\substack{<0.001^{***}\\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!>\!\delta^{13}C_p}$	0.15	_	_	_	0.81	0.09	0.67		
S6:1	< 0.01**	0.12	0.19	_	_	_	0.21	0.53	0.56		
S6:2	< 0.001***	0.22	0.95	-	_	_	< 0.01**	0.55	0.88		
Dominant- tree subsample											
S1:1	0.88	0.97	0.53	0.48	0.93	0.02*	_	_	_		
S1:2	0.17	0.09	0.17	0.09	0.68	0.46	_	_	_		
S2:1	0.95	0.54	0.59	0.10	0.57	0.61	_	_	_		
S2:2	0.51	0.52	0.51	<0.01**	0.04^{*} $\delta^{13}C_{p} > \delta^{13}C_{m}$	0.05	_	_	_		
S3:1	0.45	0.48	0.86	0.40	0.34	0.28	_	_	_		
S3:2	0.30	0.98	0.07	0.87	0.06	0.24	_	_	_		
S4:1	0.76	0.47	0.55	_	_	_	0.22	0.37	0.65		
S4:2	<0.001***	$\substack{<0.001^{***}\\ \delta^{13}C_m\!\!>\!\delta^{13}C_p}$	<0.001***	_	-	_	0.63	0.18	0.47		
S5:1	0.62	0.53	0.78	_	_	_	0.48	0.62	0.43		
\$5:2	0.51	0.06	0.7	_	_	_	0.36	0.21	0.43		
S6:1	0.19	0.19	0.93	_	_	_	0.31	0.96	0.09		
S6:2	0.98	0.18	0.42	_	_	_	0.81	0.44	0.44		

Table 3 Model p-values for *Mixture* effects, log(DBH) on $\delta^{13}C$ by triplet and species (Eq. 8).

1084 *Note*: Stars indicate significant *log(DBH)*, *Mixture* or interaction effects. *Mixture* is a two-level factor (pure vs. 1085 mixed). For significant *Mixture* effects, the direction of the estimate is indicated by $\delta^{13}C_p > \delta^{13}C_m$ if pure stands 1086 have a higher $\delta^{13}C$ estimate than mixed stands (i.e. mixture improves response to water stress compared to pure 1087 stands), and $\delta^{13}C_m > \delta^{13}C_p$ if mixed stands have a higher $\delta^{13}C$ estimate than pure stands.





Fig. 1. Field design of the GMAP network (Mediterranean and Alpine Plot Gradient, set up by 1093 X. Morin in 2013). (a) Study area and location of the six sites in south-eastern France. Dark 1094 points (sites S1 to S3) represent northern sites with European beech (Fagus sylvatica) and silver 1095 fir (Abies alba) forests. White points (sites S4 to S6) represent southern sites with European 1096 1097 beech and pubescent oak (Quercus pubescens) forests. The sites are located in the following mountain ranges of the French pre-Alps: Bauges (S1), Vercors (S2), Ventoux (S3), Lubéron 1098 Lagarde (S4), Grand Lubéron (S5), Sainte-Baume (S6). (b) Schematic representation of a site, 1099 with the two triplets per site. Each triplet is made up of two pure plots in monospecific stands 1100 and one mixed plot in a mixed-species stand. (c) Representation of an individual plot. Plots are 1101 circular with a central plot area (10 m radius) and a buffer zone (7.5 m radius). All the trees in 1102 1103 the central plot with a DBH > 7.5 cm were sampled.



Fig. 2. Climate-space diagram of presence for beech in Europe, study site annual average





Fig. 3. Tree-ring δ^{13} C values for all the trees sampled in pure stands, by site and triplet, for (a) 1118 beech, (b) fir, and (c) oak. Closed and open symbols with error bars (95% confidence intervals) 1119 1120 show mean plot values. Letters at the bottom of each graph indicate results for differences 1121 among sites by species (Eq. 5). The pure plots of the two triplets within each site are shown separately (i.e. S1:1 is triplet 1 in site S1). Stars indicate significant differences between the 1122 triplets of a site in pure stands of the same species (Eq. 5). Dots in the background represent 1123 1124 individual tree data. For individual points, a jitter function is used to add a small amount of random noise on the x-axis to show overlapping points. 1125



Fig. 4. Tree-ring δ^{13} C values for all the trees in the dominant-tree subsample for pure stands, 1128 by site and triplet for (a) beech, (b) fir, and (c) oak. Closed and open symbols with error bars 1129 (95% confidence intervals) show mean plot values. Letters at the bottom of each graph indicate 1130 results for differences among sites by species (Eq. 5). The pure plots of the two triplets within 1131 each site are shown separately (i.e. S1:1 is triplet 1 in site S1). Stars indicate significant 1132 differences between the two triplets of a site in pure stands of the same species (none here) (Eq. 1133 5). Dots in the background represent individual tree data. For individual points, a jitter function 1134 is used to add a small amount of random noise on the x-axis to show overlapping points. 1135



Fig. 5. Mean tree-ring δ^{13} C values of all the sampled trees in pure versus mixed stands by species, site and triplet for (**a**) beech-fir sites (S1 to S3, closed symbols) and (**b**) beech-oak sites (S4 to S6, open symbols). Symbols with error bars (95% confidence intervals) show mean plot values for pure (x-axis) vs. mixed (y-axis) stands. Numbers 1 and 2 represent the triplet number within the site. The dashed lines are the identity lines of slope 1 and intercept 0.



Fig. 6. Mean tree-ring δ^{13} C values of the dominant-tree subsample for pure versus mixed stands by species, site and triplet for (**a**) beech-fir sites (S1 to S3, closed symbols) and (**b**) beech-oak sites (S4 to S6, open symbols). Symbols with error bars (95% confidence intervals) show mean plot values for pure (x-axis) vs. mixed (y-axis) stands. Numbers 1 and 2 represent the triplet number within the site. The dashed lines are the identity lines of slope 1 and intercept 0.



Fig. 7. Net Biodiversity Effect (NBE) for δ^{13} C values at the stand level (see Eq. 9) for the dominant-trees subsample. Differences under 0.4 ‰ are considered as not different from 0.0 ‰. A positive NBE means that the observed mixed stand had a higher (less negative) δ^{13} C value than expected based on data from pure stands. A negative NBE means that the observed mixed stand had a lower (more negative) δ^{13} C value than expected based on data from pure stands.



1160

Fig. 8. Xylem-water δ^2 H values of the dominant-tree subsample by triplet and species. Each box represents a triplet with values for both species (beech-fir in the top line and beech-oak in the bottom line). The x-axis represents the different plots within a triplet (two pure plots and one mixed plot). Closed and open symbols with error bars (95% confidence intervals) show mean plot values. Dots in the background represent individual tree data. For site S5:1 in the mixed plot, the average for beech and oak overlap. No data could be recorded at site S4.

Appendices

Appendix A : Additional plot characteristics

See Tables A1-A3

Site	Triplet	Triplet ID	Lat. (°N)	Lon. (°E)	Mean Elevation (m)	Mean Slope (°)
S 1	1	S1:1	45.70548	6.2192	1198	21
S 1	2	S1:2	45.71188	6.21625	1025	18
	4	62.1	44.00001	5 2512	1200	20
S 2	1	\$2:1	44.90231	5.3513	1390	20
S2	2	S2:2	44.9411	5.32774	1137	11
S 3	1	S3:1	44.17788	5.24168	1354	27
S 3	2	S3:2	44.18707	5.25234	1328	27
S 4	1	S4:1	43.97376	5.48	1094	13
S 4	2	S4:2	43.97661	5.47961	1082	12
S5	1	S5:1	43.8203	5.53343	1005	26
S5	2	S5:2	43.82269	5.53423	889	34
S 6	1	S6:1	43.33197	5.77038	736	8
S6	2	S6:2	43.33281	5.77328	746	12

Table A2 Stand structure for each plot, triplet and site. Plot dendrometric variables include: the dominant height of the plot (H_{dom} , in m) and the basal area of all stems by plot and species (in $m^2 ha^{-1}$).

Site	Triplet	Plot	H _{dom} (m)	Basal area (m ² ha ⁻¹)							
				Beech	Fir	Oak	Other sp.	Total			
S 1	1	Pure beech	37	80.3	_	_	4.5	84.8			
S 1	1	Pure fir	30	0.2	81.0	_	8.5	89.7			
S 1	1	Mixed	28	27.4	29.6	_	4.3	61.4			
S 1	2	Pure beech	34	46.0	5.5	_	_	51.5			
S 1	2	Pure fir	34	_	62.5	_	7.4	69.9			
S1	2	Mixed	33	32.7	45.5	_	5.1	83.3			
S2	1	Pure beech	16	24.9	_	_	3.0	27.9			
S 2	1	Pure fir	22	_	50.5	_	1.4	51.9			
S2	1	Mixed	18	16.0	18.9	_	1.4	36.2			
S 2	2	Pure beech	33	63.0	2.4	_	_	65.5			
S 2	2	Pure fir	30	0.6	64.4	_	_	65.0			
S2	2	Mixed	26	27.5	19.2	_	_	46.7			
S 3	1	Pure beech	22	62.0	0.2	_	_	62.2			
S 3	1	Pure fir	16	0.9	47.5	_	0.8	49.3			
S 3	1	Mixed	18	17.6	39.4	_	_	57.0			
S 3	2	Pure beech	20	58.5	1.0	_	_	59.6			
S 3	2	Pure fir	17	14.1	52.1	_	1.2	67.5			
S 3	2	Mixed	20	32.0	20.5	_	4.7	57.3			
S 4	1	Pure beech	20	42.5	_	_	1.3	43.8			
S 4	1	Pure oak	12	1.3	_	25.3	2.0	28.6			
S 4	1	Mixed	16	12.5	_	24.2	9.8	46.5			
S 4	2	Pure beech	19	41.9	_	0.3	_	42.2			
S4	2	Pure oak	13	1.0	_	19.0	0.7	20.6			
S4	2	Mixed	15	35.5	_	11.9	1.7	49.1			
S5	1	Pure beech	13	24.7	_	0.9	11.9	37.5			
S 5	1	Pure oak	11	_	_	34.4	9.7	44.1			
S 5	1	Mixed	11	15.2	_	13.0	8.0	36.2			
S 5	2	Pure beech	16	30.5	_	_	8.0	38.5			
S 5	2	Pure oak	10	_	_	24.3	4.2	28.5			
S5	2	Mixed	12	11.9	_	12.0	5.4	29.3			
S 6	1	Pure beech	30	54.8	_	_	13.3	68.1			
S6	1	Pure oak	19	_	_	61.6	18.2	79.8			
S6	1	Mixed	21	23.3	_	24.2	22.5	70.0			
S 6	2	Pure beech	20	32.5	_	3.0	7.7	43.2			
S 6	2	Pure oak	16	_	_	33.4	0.5	33.9			
S 6	2	Mixed	19	22.3	_	21.2	8.1	51.7			

Table A3 Average summer rainfall and summer temperature for 4-month summer periods (Juneto September) at each site calculated over two time periods and mean number of days withwater stress (REW < 0.4) over 2003-2007 from BILJOU© model.</td>

Site	Name of region	Summer Rain (mm)	Summer Rain (mm)	Mean summer temp. (°C)	Mean summer temp. (°C)	Mean number of days with water stress
		1994-2013	2003-2007	1994-2013	2003-2007	2003-2007
S1	Bauges	619 (±50)	581 (±158)	13.7 (±0.41)	14.3 (±1.34)	1
S2	Vercors	429 (±48)	332 (±46)	14.5 (±0.41)	15.1 (±0.93)	52
S3	Ventoux	293 (±39)	221 (±35)	15.6 (±0.37)	16.2 (±1.01)	94
S4	Lubéron Lagarde	246 (±38)	172 (±36)	17.8 (±0.37)	18.2 (±1.08)	105
S 5	Grand Lubéron	227 (±30)	169 (±40)	19.8 (±0.35)	20.2 (±1.16)	107
S6	Sainte-Baume	212 (±39)	158 (±56)	20.1 (±0.37)	20.7 (±0.93)	108

Appendix B : Additional model results

See Tables B1-B2

Table B1 Linear mixed model output for *Species* effect, log(DBH) and their interaction on δ^{13} C values in pure stands by type of mixture (Eq. 6).

		Beech	n-fir sites		Beech-oak sites					
	χ^2	df	Р	post-hoc	χ^2	df	Р	post-hoc		
All trees		228				238				
log(DBH)	183	1	<.001***		113	1	<.001***			
Species	7	1	<.01**	beech <fir< td=""><td>92</td><td>1</td><td><.001***</td><td>beech<oak< td=""></oak<></td></fir<>	92	1	<.001***	beech <oak< td=""></oak<>		
log(DBH):Species	17	1	<.001***		24	1	<.001***			
R2m(R2c)	0.30 (0.72)				0.40 (0.61)					
Dominant-tree										
subsample		54				56				
log(DBH)	0	1	0.61		0	1	0.48			
Species	11	1	<.001***	beech <fir< td=""><td>7</td><td>1</td><td><.01**</td><td>beech<oak< td=""></oak<></td></fir<>	7	1	<.01**	beech <oak< td=""></oak<>		
log(DBH):Species	0	1	0.72		4	1	0.06			
R2m(R2c)	0.09 (0.63)				0.18 (0.28)					

Note: Stars indicate significant *log(DBH)*, *Species* and interaction effects. *Species* is a two-level factor (beech-fir or beech-oak). For significant *Species* effects, the direction of the estimate is indicated by beech<fir (beech<oak) because fir (oak) trees have a higher δ^{13} C estimate than beech stands. χ^2 : chi square test results for type "II" ANOVA. *df*: degrees of freedom. *P*: p-value for fixed terms. *Triplet ID* is used as a random factor in all four models. A pseudo R-squared for mixed effect models was used to determine the variance explained by the two fixed terms only (marginal coefficient of determination, R^2_m) and the entire model including the random terms (conditional coefficient of determination, R^2_c).

Table B2 Linear mixed model output for *Species* effect, *Mixture* and their interaction on $\delta^2 H$ of the dominant-tree subsample by type of mixture (Eq. 10).

			Beech-fir sit	Beech-oa	ak si	tes	
	χ^2	df	Р	post-hoc	χ^2	df	Р
Dominant-tree							
subsample	_	104				65	
Species	149	1	< 0.001***	beech <fir< td=""><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0.71</td></fir<>	0	1	0.71
Mixture	0	1	0.61		1	1	0.33
Species:Mixture	10	1	0.002**	beech: m <p< td=""><td>2</td><td>1</td><td>0.16</td></p<>	2	1	0.16
				fir: m=p			
				pure: beech <fir< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></fir<>			
				mixed: beech <fir< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td></fir<>			
R2m(R2c)	0.36 (0.75)				0.03 (0.32)		

Note: Stars indicate significant *Species*, *Mixture* and interaction effects. *Species* is a two-level factor (beech-fir or beech-oak); *Mixture* is also a two-level factor (pure vs. mixed). For significant *Species* effects, the direction of the estimate is indicated by beech<fir because fir trees have a higher δ^2 H estimate than beech. Post-hoc results for the *Species:Mixture* interaction are similarly indicated. χ^2 : chi square test results for type "II" ANOVA. *df*: degrees of freedom. *P*: p-value for fixed terms. *Triplet ID* is used as a random factor in both models. A pseudo R-squared for mixed effect models was used to determine the variance explained by the two fixed terms only (marginal coefficient of determination, R^2_m) and the entire model including the random terms (conditional coefficient of determination, R^2_c).