

1 **Inferring phenotypic plasticity and local adaptation to climate across tree species ranges**
2 **using forest inventory data**

3

4 **Running title:** Understanding phenotypic variation in natural populations

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31 **ABSTRACT**

32 **Aim:** To test whether adaptive and plastic trait responses to climate across species
33 distribution ranges can be untangled using field observations, under the rationale that, in
34 natural forest tree populations, long-term climate shapes local adaptation while recent climate
35 change drives phenotypic plasticity.

36 **Location:** Europe.

37 **Time period:** 1901-2014.

38 **Taxa:** Silver fir (*Abies alba* Mill.) and sessile oak (*Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl.).

39 **Methods:** We estimated the variation of individual tree height as a function of long-term and
40 short-term climates to tease apart local adaptation, plasticity and their interaction, using
41 mixed-effect models calibrated with National Forest Inventory data (*in-situ* models). To
42 validate our approach, we tested the ability of *in-situ* models to predict independently tree
43 height observations in common gardens where local adaptation to climate of populations and
44 their plasticity can be measured and separated. *In-situ* model predictions of tree height
45 variation among provenances (populations of different geographical origin) and among
46 planting sites were compared to observations in common gardens and to predictions from a
47 similar model calibrated using common garden data (*ex-situ* model).

48 **Results:** In *Q. petraea*, we found high correlations between *in-situ* and *ex-situ* model
49 predictions of provenance and plasticity effects and their interaction on tree height ($r > 0.80$).
50 We showed that the *in-situ* models significantly predicted tree height variation among
51 provenances and sites for *Abies alba* and *Quercus petraea*. Spatial predictions of phenotypic
52 plasticity across species distribution ranges indicate decreasing tree height in populations of
53 warmer climates in response to recent anthropogenic climate warming.

54 **Main conclusions:** Our modelling approach using National Forest Inventory observations
55 provides a new perspective for understanding patterns of intraspecific trait variation across
56 species ranges. Its application is particularly interesting for species for which common garden
57 experiments do not exist or do not cover the entire climatic range of the species.

58 **Keywords:** *Abies alba*, common gardens, intraspecific trait variation, national forest
59 inventory, *Quercus petraea*, tree height

60

61 INTRODUCTION

62 Understanding the causes of phenotypic variation across species distribution ranges is
63 important because phenotypic traits are fundamental drivers of community assembly,
64 ecosystem functioning, and population response to climate change (Diaz *et al.*, 2004; Shipley
65 *et al.*, 2006; Alberto *et al.*, 2013; Kunstler *et al.*, 2016). The two non-exclusive causes of
66 phenotypic variation within species are the phenotypic plasticity (i.e., the capacity of one
67 genotype to render different phenotypes under different environments, Valladares *et al.*, 2006)
68 and local adaptation (i.e., the fact that individuals have a better fitness in their local
69 environment than individuals from other populations, Kawecki & Ebert, 2004). The spatial
70 distribution of the amount of phenotypic variation that can be attributed to phenotypic
71 plasticity or to local adaptation may change the response of organisms to climate change as
72 predicted by theoretical approaches (Chevin *et al.*, 2010; Valladares *et al.*, 2014). Yet,
73 attributing the cause of phenotypic trait variation across species ranges to either plastic or
74 genetic components, or the interaction between the two, remains a challenge without using
75 costly, long-term common garden experiments.

76 Long-term spatial divergence under different environmental conditions is known to
77 promote phenotypic differentiation of populations as a result of local adaptation (Mimura &

78 Aitken, 2010; Savolainen *et al.*, 2013; Yeaman *et al.*, 2016), which affects their current
79 response to a particular climate (Rehfeldt *et al.*, 2002; Savolainen *et al.*, 2007; Valladares *et*
80 *al.*, 2014). However, significantly less is known about the distribution of phenotypic
81 plasticity and its importance for populations for coping with rapid climate change across the
82 species range, especially in long-lived sessile organisms such as forest trees (Nicotra *et al.*,
83 2010; Benito Garzón *et al.*, 2011; Valladares *et al.*, 2014; Duputié *et al.*, 2015).

84 Patterns of phenotypic plasticity and local adaptation of populations have long been
85 assessed using common garden or reciprocal transplant experiments, in which genotypes of
86 known climatic origin (i.e., provenances) are growing in experimental plantations where
87 short-term environmental conditions are controlled. In common gardens (also named
88 ‘provenance tests’ or ‘genetic trials’), local adaptation has mostly been inferred from trait
89 differences among provenances that are related to the long-term climate of origin of the
90 provenance, while plasticity is quantified by trait variation with the short-term climatic
91 conditions at the planting sites (see Matyas, 1994; Wang *et al.*, 2006; Leites *et al.*, 2012 for
92 forest trees). Common gardens have been established for a few economically important tree
93 species for which only a restricted range of populations and ontogenic stages have been
94 studied, which makes the understanding of phenotypic variation across species ranges limited
95 (Fady *et al.*, 2016).

96 On the other hand, causes of phenotypic variation are confounded in natural conditions, in
97 addition to the effects of ontogeny and competition. National Forest Inventories (NFI)
98 provide extensive data of phenotypic variation of forest trees in natural conditions, and hence,
99 they have been widely used to test different ecological questions such as the effects of
100 functional traits on competition, forest productivity and response to climate change (Kunstler

101 *et al.*, 2016; Ratcliffe *et al.*, 2016; Ruiz-Benito *et al.*, 2017), but to date, the causes of
102 phenotypic variation in NFI remain unexplored.

103 Here we show that the components of intraspecific trait variation: local adaptation,
104 plasticity and their interaction, can be statistically estimated using the field data recorded in
105 French NFI for two ecologically and economically important forest tree species usually
106 managed using natural regeneration, *Abies alba* Mill. and *Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl. We
107 use tree height, an important adaptive and fitness-related trait (Savolainen *et al.*, 2007; Díaz
108 *et al.*, 2016), to independently test our approach on field observations (NFI) and we validate
109 our findings using common garden data. Our approach expands the space-for-time
110 substitution analysis developed in common gardens (Matyas, 1994; Rehfeldt *et al.*, 2002;
111 Leites *et al.*, 2012) to field observations of phenotypic trait variation, with the rationale that
112 trees inventoried in the field have a local origin (i.e. seed sources originated within the
113 bioclimatic region inhabited by the trees). To separate the sources of phenotypic variation in
114 nature, we examined climatic variations that occur at two temporal and spatial scales: first,
115 regional patterns in long-term climate (LTC) that have promoted trait variation among
116 provenances as a result of local adaptation (Savolainen *et al.*, 2007; Mimura & Aitken, 2010;
117 Kremer *et al.*, 2012); and, second, short-term climate (STC) that shapes plastic responses of
118 individual trees to recent climate change (Nicotra *et al.*, 2010; Valladares *et al.*, 2014). Our
119 approach opens new perspectives for the understanding of phenotypic variation patterns
120 across species distribution ranges using large field observation datasets such as forest
121 inventories.

122

123 **METHODS**

124 We analysed tree height (m), a fitness-related phenotypic trait, measured both in NFI and
125 common gardens. We selected two major European forest species with contrasted life history
126 traits and ecological requirements: *Abies alba* Mill. (a montane evergreen needle-leaved
127 gymnosperm) and *Quercus petraea* (Matt.) Liebl. (a temperate deciduous broadleaved
128 angiosperm). In the NFI, these two species are traditionally managed using natural
129 regeneration, thus adult trees are assumed to derive from the local gene pool.
130 We calibrated two independent mixed-effect models of individual tree height using NFI (*in-*
131 *situ* model) and common garden data (*ex-situ* model), respectively. To validate our models we
132 used two different methods (Fig. 1). The first one is a validation using common garden data:
133 it directly compares the results of the *in-situ* model with independent tree height
134 measurements standardized by common garden and by provenance to respectively separate
135 the effects of the provenance (local adaptation) and plasticity. The second one is a validation
136 using *ex-situ* model predictions: it compares the predictions of *in situ* and *ex-situ* models
137 regarding the relative contribution to the model of the climate of the planting site (plastic
138 effect) and that of the climate of the origin of the provenances (local adaptation), and the
139 interaction between both. All analyses and computations were carried out in the R software
140 environment (R Core Team, 2013).

141

142 **Phenotypic data**

143 *National Forest Inventories (NFI)*

144 Observation data comprised ten annual campaigns of the French NFI (2005–2014;
145 <http://inventaire-forestier.ign.fr>), which consists of a regular grid (1 km²) of temporary forest
146 plots of 707 m² each. In this study, we focused on French NFI (Appendix S1, Fig. S1.1)

147 because inventories of neighbouring countries do not provide age data, thereby preventing the
148 effect of age to be accounted for in models. Nevertheless, the distribution of French NFI plots
149 has a good representativeness of the climatic range of the two species (Fig. S2.1). In each
150 NFI plot, we selected trees for which height (in m), diameter at breast height (dbh; in cm) and
151 age (years) data were measured. In particular, tree age was estimated from wood increment
152 cores collected at breast height (1.30 m) for the one or two of the largest dominant trees in the
153 plot. To account for stand density and the local abundance of neighbouring trees on tree
154 height variation among plots, we computed for each NFI plot the sum of the basal area of
155 neighbouring trees larger than 7.5 cm dbh (Kunstler *et al.*, 2016). We removed plots outside
156 the natural distribution range of the species (Fig. S1.1), identified as plantation or if there was
157 any evidence of recent (<5 years) management, for example logging. We assumed that trees
158 in the remaining plots originated from local provenances within the same bioclimatic region.
159 The final dataset consisted of 5376 trees from 3614 plots for *Q. petraea*, and 1304 trees from
160 904 plots for *A. alba*.

161

162 *Common gardens*

163 Common garden data were used to independently validate *in-situ* models (NFI calibration).
164 They were established for breeding purposes during 1990–1996 for *Q. petraea* and 1967–
165 1972 for *A. alba*, as follows: (i) seeds were collected from seed sources (hereafter
166 provenances) throughout the natural distribution range of the species ($N = 141$ for *Q. petraea*,
167 $N = 47$ for *A. alba*); (ii) the seeds were sown in a nursery; (iii) seedlings were transplanted to
168 several sites, i.e., common gardens ($N = 13$ for *Q. petraea*, $N = 6$ for *A. alba*; Fig. S1.1),
169 using a randomised block design; and (iv) measurements of tree height were made at several
170 different years. To avoid pseudo-replication, we randomly selected a single measurement year

171 for each tree. Neighbour basal area was assumed to be constant because plantations have a
172 regular spacing design. Tree age at the time of height measurement was considered to be the
173 time since sowing. A detailed description of the *Q. petraea* provenance tests is provided in a
174 previous study (Sáenz-Romero *et al.*, 2017). A description of the *A. alba* provenances studied
175 in common gardens is provided in Appendix S1 (Tables S1-S2).

176

177 **Climate data**

178 To analyse phenotypic trait response to long-term climate and recent climate change, we used
179 the yearly climate grids (1901–2014) at 30 arc sec resolution ($\sim 1 \text{ km}^2$) of the EuMedClim
180 dataset covering Europe and the Mediterranean Basin (Fréjaville & Benito Garzón, 2018).
181 For the present study, the following bioclimatic variables were considered (Fig. S2.1): annual
182 mean temperature, maximum temperature of the warmest month, minimum temperature of
183 the coldest month, annual precipitation, precipitation of the wettest and the driest month,
184 annual potential evapotranspiration, potential evapotranspiration of the warmest and the
185 coldest month and water balance (precipitation minus potential evapotranspiration) of the
186 wettest and the driest month. EuMedClim was computed following an anomaly approach
187 using the fine 30' resolution of WorldClim climate means (version 1.4, Hijmans *et al.*, 2005)
188 to adjust the coarse spatial 0.5° resolution of yearly climate data from the Climate Research
189 Unit (version ts3.23, Harris *et al.*, 2014). EuMedClim provides inter-annual variation of
190 bioclimatic conditions at high spatial resolution, allowing the analysis of climate at different
191 spatial and temporal scales instead of using climate means over a reference period (e.g.
192 WorldClim).

193 To fulfil the requirements of our modelling approach based on the different climate scales
194 at which phenotypic plasticity and local adaptation act, we split the climate data into three

195 different sets of data: (i) long-term climate (LTC) that is the average climate value of the
196 1901–1960 period, and represents the climate driven local adaptation in the past for
197 provenances (for common gardens) or for a common bioclimatic origin (for NFI, assuming
198 that that all trees have a local origin in a given bioclimatic origin – Appendix S2); (ii) short-
199 term climate (STC) represents the plastic response of trees to recent climate and is calculated
200 as the local climate averaged over the 10 years preceding the measurements (NFI and
201 common garden data); (iii) recent climate change (RCC), calculated by subtracting LTC from
202 STC to avoid collinearity problems between LTC and STC in NFI.

203

204 **Models of intra-specific trait variability**

205 Hereafter, we refer to models calibrated using NFI data as *in-situ* models and to models
206 calibrated using common gardens as *ex-situ* models. For a given species, the phenotypic trait
207 T_{ijk} (tree height) of the i^{th} tree individual of the j^{th} bioclimatic region (or provenance) in the k^{th}
208 plot (or common garden) was modelled as follows:

$$209 \log(T_{ijk}) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 LTC_j + \alpha_2 LTC_j^2 + \alpha_3 RCC_{jk} + \alpha_4 RCC_{jk}^2 + \alpha_5 LTC_j \times RCC_{jk} + \beta + \delta + \varepsilon$$

$$210 \quad (1)$$

211 where LTC_j is the long-term climate of either the j^{th} bioclimatic region in NFI or the j^{th}
212 provenance in common gardens; RCC_{jk} is the recent climate change defined as the difference
213 between the STC at the k^{th} site (i.e., the NFI plot or the common garden) and LTC_j . We
214 included quadratic terms for both LTC_j and RCC_{jk} to consider linear and hump-shaped height
215 responses to climate across species ranges. β includes ontogeny and neighbour basal area
216 covariates and is defined as:

$$217 \beta = \alpha_6 \log(age_{ijk}) + \alpha_7 \log(BAc_{ijk}) + \alpha_6 \log(age_{ijk}) \times RCC_{jk} + \alpha_7 \log(BAc_{ijk}) \times LTC_j \quad (2)$$

218 where *age* is the tree age (in years, estimated at breast height in NFI and as the time since
219 sowing in common gardens) and *BAC* is the sum of the basal area of neighbouring trees
220 (assumed to be constant in common gardens). δ gathers random effects and ε is the model
221 error. To control for differences among sampling units in soil fertility, management (or
222 disturbances) and environmental factors not accounted for by fixed effects, we set as random
223 effects the plot nested within the bioclimatic region in *in-situ* models and the block nested
224 within the site in *ex-situ* models (randomised block design). In the case of *A. alba*, the
225 bioclimatic region random effect was not retained because it inflated p-values of LTC terms
226 in the *in-situ* model (high redundancy). One main difference between NFI and common
227 garden data is the age of trees (Fig. S4.1). We reduced this difference by excluding old trees
228 (> 200 years) in NFI and saplings (< 10 years) in common gardens, and we added *age* as a
229 covariate in the models to control for ontogeny. To control for potential differences in growth
230 response to climate change among ontogenic stages, we added the interaction term $age_{ijk} \times$
231 RCC_{jk} in both models. We also introduced *BAC* as covariate to control for neighbour basal
232 area (Fig. S4.1) and the interaction term $BAC_{ijk} \times LTC_j$ to control for potential differences in
233 neighbour basal area effects among bioclimatic regions in *in-situ* models. A saturated model
234 form including $BAC_{ijk} \times RCC_{jk}$ and $age_{ijk} \times LTC_j$ interaction terms was not retained as it
235 decreased model parsimony and the significance of parameters of interest. Models were fitted
236 using the R package nlme (Pinheiro *et al.*, 2015). Coefficients of determination were used to
237 compute the percentage of explained variance by fixed effects alone (R^2_{marginal}) and both fixed
238 and random effects ($R^2_{\text{conditional}}$) (Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2013).

239 For each species, we selected one single explanatory bioclimatic variable to represent LTC
240 and RCC, the same between the two datasets (to enable comparison). The variable selection
241 process was as follows. First, we fitted one model per dataset for each bioclimatic variable

242 (Fig. S2.1) using eqns (1-2). Second, we removed models when parameter estimates for LTC
243 and RCC were not significant at $P = 0.1$ or when positive quadratic relationships were fit (α_2
244 > 0 or $\alpha_4 > 0$) to keep models with decreasing tree height towards one or both ends of the
245 climatic gradient. Third, competitive models were compared using the Akaike information
246 criterion (AIC), and the final model selection was based on the lowest AIC values for both *in-*
247 *situ* and *ex-situ* models (to enable comparison).

248

249 **Model predictions**

250 *Separating local adaptation, plasticity and their interaction*

251 Model coefficients were used to separate components of phenotypic variation by substituting
252 RCC to its climatic components ($RCC_{jk} = STC_k - LTC_j$) in eqn. (1):

$$253 \log(T_{ijk}) = \alpha_0 + (\alpha_1 - \alpha_3) LTC_j + (\alpha_2 + \alpha_4 - \alpha_5) LTC_j^2 + \alpha_3 STC_k + \alpha_4 STC_k^2$$

$$254 + (\alpha_5 - 2\alpha_4) LTC_j \times RCC_{jk} + \beta + \delta + \varepsilon \quad (3)$$

255 This analytical decomposition enables to estimate the relative effects of the long-term and
256 short-term climate in the field, using RCC and LTC from eqn. (1). From eqn. (3), coefficients
257 associated to linear ($\alpha_1 - \alpha_3$) and quadratic ($\alpha_2 + \alpha_4 - \alpha_5$) variation of LTC are used to predict
258 the effect of the provenance (local adaptation), coefficients associated to linear (α_3) and
259 quadratic (α_4) variation of STC are used to predict phenotypic plasticity (reaction norms) and
260 those associated to $LTC_j \times STC_k$ ($\alpha_5 - 2\alpha_4$) are used to predict their interaction.

261

262 *Spatial predictions*

263 The *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models were used to make spatial predictions of provenance and
264 plasticity effects, their interaction and the total component of tree height response to climate

265 across Europe. We computed LTC_j and STC_k in each grid cell (30 arc sec resolution)
266 respectively using the long-term (1901–1960) and the recent short-term (2001–2014)
267 averaged values of the corresponding climatic variables to compute maps according to fitted
268 parameters in eqn. (3). Effects of covariates were fixed for *age* (12-year-old trees), *BAC* (30
269 $m^2 ha^{-1}$) and for their interaction with RCC_{jk} and LTC_j (both averaged across the species
270 natural range), respectively, according to eqn. (2), and these constants (including the intercept
271 α_0) were added to the total variation component.

272

273 **Model validation**

274 To validate our approach, we used two alternative methods (Fig. 1) to test the ability of *in-*
275 *situ* models to predict independent tree height observations in common gardens where the
276 effects of the provenance, plasticity and their interaction can be separated.

277

278 *Validation using common garden data*

279 To compare the predictions of *in-situ* models with raw common garden data, we first
280 predicted the mean height of each provenance in each site (provenance-by-site mean) from
281 eqn. (3), as a function of the LTC of the provenance and the STC of the site for a given age
282 and neighbour basal area. Then, we compared these predictions to observed values in
283 common gardens. Both predicted and observed provenance-by-site means were standardized
284 across sites and provenances to estimate provenance and plasticity effects, respectively (see
285 Appendix S3). Correlations between predicted and observed values were tested using Pearson
286 correlation coefficients.

287

288 *Validation using ex-situ model predictions*

289 To compare the predictions of *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models, we predicted provenance and
290 plasticity effects, and their interaction, as a function of LTC and STC conditions in common
291 gardens using both *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models (see Appendix S3). From eqn. (3), the mean
292 tree height of a provenance planted in several common gardens was predicted for a given age
293 and neighbour basal area as a function of the LTC of the provenance (genetic effect) and the
294 mean tree height of each provenance was predicted as a function of the STC of the site
295 (plasticity of the provenance). Correlations between paired predictions from *in-situ* and *ex-*
296 *situ* models of provenance and plasticity effects, their interaction and the sum of all three
297 components of tree height (total variation) were tested using Pearson correlation coefficients.
298 For the interaction component, correlation coefficients were computed separately for the
299 mean plastic responses (reaction norms) of cold, core and warm provenances. We classified
300 provenances among cold, core and warm parts of the range using the 1-33th, 34-66th and 67-
301 100th percentiles of LTC, respectively, computed across the natural distribution range of the
302 species.

303

304 **RESULTS**

305 We found both *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models with significant terms for LTC, RCC and their
306 interaction on individual tree height in *Q. petraea* whereas only the *in-situ* model was found
307 significant for *A. alba*. In *Q. petraea*, selected *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models were based on the
308 maximum temperature of the warmest month (Tmax). In *A. alba*, the selected *in-situ* model
309 was based on the potential evapotranspiration of the warmest month (PETmax). Both *in-situ*
310 and *ex-situ* models indicated significant negative interaction between LTC and RCC (Table 1)

311 and positive interaction between LTC and STC (Table 2) in both species. Hence, average
312 plasticity differed among regions and provenances for both species.
313 *In-situ* selected models indicated significant positive effects of tree age and neighbour basal
314 area on tree height (Table 1, Fig. S4.1). Tree height increased with increasing neighbour basal
315 area in *A. alba* ($P = 0.07$) and with neighbour basal area towards warmer regions in *Q.*
316 *petraea* (positive interaction between BAc and LTC, $P = 0.02$; Table 1).

317

318 **Statistical approximation of provenance and plasticity effects**

319 *Sessile oak (Quercus petraea)*

320 Validation using common garden data indicated that predictions of tree height variation
321 among provenances and among sites using the *in-situ* model were significantly correlated
322 with observations in common gardens in *Q. petraea* ($P < 0.001$ for estimates of provenance
323 and plasticity effects, and the total component of tree height, Fig. S6.3). Validation using *ex-*
324 *situ* model predictions showed high correlations between *in-situ* and *ex-situ* model
325 predictions of the provenance and plasticity effects, and their interaction (Table 2, Fig. 2). We
326 found significant quadratic responses of height to Tmax for the provenance effect (Fig. 2a),
327 plasticity (Fig. 2b) and the total (Fig. 2c) variation, that were similar between *in-situ* and *ex-*
328 *situ* models with high correlations between paired predictions ($r > 0.80$, $P < 0.001$). We found
329 high correlations between *ex-situ* and *in-situ* model paired predictions of cold ($r = 0.65$, $P <$
330 0.001), core ($r = 0.99$, $P < 0.001$) and warm provenance mean reaction norms ($r = 0.97$, $P <$
331 0.001). Both models showed similar patterns in Tmax optimums (i.e. Tmax values
332 corresponding to maximum predicted heights) among cold, core and warm provenances that
333 were respectively warmer and colder for warm and cold provenances (Kruskal-Wallis tests, P

334 < 0.001, Fig. 2d-e). The *in-situ* model, however, showed higher differences in optimums
335 among provenances (Fig. 2e).

336

337 *Silver fir (Abies alba)*

338 In *A. alba*, the *in-situ* model showed significant quadratic responses of tree height to PETmax
339 for the provenance and plasticity effects (Table 2). Validation using common garden data
340 indicated that the *in-situ* model significantly predicted tree height variation among
341 provenances in common gardens (provenance effect: $r = 0.44$, $P < 0.01$, Fig. 3a) and among
342 sites (plasticity effect: $r = 0.72$, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 3b). The correlation was weak for the total
343 variation ($r = 0.20$, $P = 0.06$, Fig. 3c, Fig. S7.3). The *in-situ* model predicted warmer
344 optimums for warm provenances and colder optimums for cold provenances (Kruskal-Wallis
345 tests, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 3d).

346

347 **Range-wide spatial predictions of tree height**

348 In *Q. petraea*, both the *ex-situ* and *in-situ* models predicted very similar spatial patterns (Fig.
349 4) in the relative variation of tree height for provenance and plasticity effects, and their
350 interaction, despite differences in absolute values for total variation for a given age and
351 neighbour basal area (Fig. 4g-h). These differences are explained by the differences in tree
352 age estimation between the two datasets (i.e. age is measured at breast height in NFI and as
353 the time since sowing in common gardens). The quadratic response of tree height to LTC
354 (Fig. 2a) predicted that trees living at the warm limit of the species range were the shortest,
355 which is illustrated by the short heights predicted over southern Europe from the provenance
356 effect (transparent colours, Fig. 4a-b). Similarly, trees inhabiting the warmest conditions in
357 the southernmost part of the species distribution range were also predicted to be shorter from

358 the phenotypic plasticity effect (Fig. 4c-d). Spatial predictions of interaction effects showed
359 an opposite pattern with increasing height towards warmer climates (Fig. 4e-f). Total
360 variation followed spatial patterns of the provenance and plasticity effects (Fig. 4g-h). In *A.*
361 *alba*, trees inhabiting cold climates (e.g. high elevation areas in the Alps) were predicted to be
362 shorter according to the *in-situ* model (Fig. 5). In warm climates, the provenance effect (Fig.
363 4a) and provenance \times plasticity interaction (Fig. 5c) predicted taller trees while plasticity
364 predicted smaller trees over southern Europe (Fig. 5b).

365

366 **DISCUSSION**

367 **Can local adaptation and phenotypic plasticity in tree height be inferred from *in-situ*** 368 **observations?**

369 To date, disentangling the sources of phenotypic variation has only been addressed by
370 analysing common gardens or reciprocal transplant experiments (e.g. Kawecki & Ebert,
371 2004; Hoffmann & Sgrò, 2011; Blanquart *et al.*, 2013; Latreille & Pichot, 2017), using
372 similar approaches as those that we named here *ex-situ* models. However, as common garden
373 data are often scarce, we propose an alternative method for understanding the causes of
374 phenotypic variation: using increasingly abundant data from field observations, such as NFI.
375 Using the rationale of *ex-situ* models based on common garden data, we defined *in-situ*
376 models based on NFI data and thoroughly validated *in-situ* model predictions with raw data
377 coming from common gardens and with predictions from *ex-situ* models.

378 Overall, our results show that *in-situ* models correctly predicted phenotypic patterns
379 observed in common gardens (Table 2, Figs 2-5), suggesting that field observations (NFI) can
380 be used to statistically approximate the range-wide intraspecific variation in tree height that is
381 attributable to local adaptation (provenance effects), plasticity and their interaction

382 components. In particular, our results suggest that differences among provenances that are
383 related to their climate of origin can be statistically approximated using field measurements
384 by modelling trait variation as a function of the long-term regional climate (LTC), while the
385 recent climate change (RCC) and its components (STC - LTC) can be used to estimate the
386 plastic response of the trait. However, we must keep in mind that other models can achieve
387 similar predictions. Hence further studies are needed to decipher whether our approach can be
388 used to estimate local adaptation and phenotypic plasticity components of intraspecific
389 variation in the field for other traits and taxa.

390 In both species, the most parsimonious models (both *in-situ* and *ex-situ*) were based on
391 climatic variables related to summer temperature: PETmax in *A. alba* and Tmax in *Q.*
392 *petraea*. This underlies the high sensitivity of *Abies alba* to the evaporative demand in
393 summer (Lebourgeois *et al.*, 2013) and that temperature chiefly drove differences in tree
394 height among *Q. petraea* provenances while drought mostly drove plastic responses for tree
395 height and survival in this species (Sáenz-Romero *et al.*, 2017).

396 Although validation analyses showed good agreement between *in-situ* model predictions
397 and common garden data for both species, we found some discrepancies. In *A. alba*, we did
398 not find any significant *ex-situ* model. This may be explained by the fact that less common
399 garden data are available for this species compared to *Q. petraea*. In addition, *A. alba* is a
400 generalist species with limited local adaptation to temperature and water availability (Frank *et*
401 *al.*, 2017; Latreille & Pichot, 2017). Otherwise, predictions based on NFI data in *Q. petraea*
402 (Fig. 2d) showed higher differences of climatic optima among provenances than those based
403 on common garden data (Fig. 2e). These differences might be induced by intrinsic differences
404 in the nature of data. The large difference in the age of trees (older in NFI data) and the fact
405 that NFI data rely on dominant trees might partly explained these differences and the fact that

406 a stronger signal of local adaptation (i.e. higher differences in climatic optima) was found
407 using NFI data.

408

409 **Common patterns of local adaptation and plasticity in tree height: implications for**
410 **species distribution ranges under climate change**

411 In both species, we found hump-shaped relationships between height and climate for the
412 provenance (long-term climate) and plasticity effects (short-term climate) and a positive
413 interaction effect between them (Table 2, Figs 2-3). The latter indicated that climatic optima
414 of provenances co-vary positively with their climate of origin: warmer provenances grow
415 taller in warmer climates and colder provenances grow taller in colder climates (Figs 2d-e
416 and 3d). In addition, this indicated that plasticity differs significantly among populations, as
417 for other species (Wang *et al.*, 2006; Leites *et al.*, 2012; Münzbergová *et al.*, 2017; Sáenz-
418 Romero *et al.*, 2017). This consistency between *A. alba* (a mountain evergreen conifer tree)
419 and *Q. petraea* (a temperate deciduous broadleaved tree) points to potential common patterns
420 in local adaptation and plasticity among tree species, as recently indicated in boreal conifer
421 trees (Pedlar & McKenney, 2017).

422 Our spatial predictions of phenotypic plasticity suggest that tree height of warm
423 provenances has decreased in response to recent climate warming, mostly in southern Europe
424 (Figs 4-5). These results suggest that recent warming may have pushed species at the
425 warmest boundary of the distribution range beyond their tolerance limits, that is corroborated
426 by a higher mortality in warmest/driest range margins for *A. alba*, *Q. petraea* and other
427 European tree species (Cailleret *et al.*, 2014; Benito Garzón *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, we
428 found that the effect of neighbour basal area on tree height was dependent on the climate of
429 the bioclimatic region in *Q. petraea*, emphasising that tree sensitivity to biotic interaction

430 (e.g. competition) may change along climatic gradients (Gomez-Aparicio *et al.*, 2011;
431 Kunstler *et al.*, 2016).

432

433 **CONCLUSION**

434 We show that local adaptation and plasticity components of phenotypic variation, and their
435 interaction, can be statistically approximated using field observations of wild tree populations
436 subject to recent climate warming. However, further studies are needed to determine whether
437 the ability of *in-situ* models to predict trends in common garden experiments represent a
438 shared underlying cause that can be generalized to other situations, i.e. whether climate
439 variations at different scales can be used to separate local adaptation and plastic responses to
440 climate in field conditions. The modelling framework used in our study could be applied to
441 many species and traits, offering a promising avenue to enhance our understanding of local
442 adaptation and plasticity patterns across large geographical gradients.

443

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445

446 **DATA ACCESSIBILITY**

447 Raw data can be freely accessed online for French National Forest Inventories

448 (<http://inventaire-forestier.ign.fr>), *Quercus petraea*

449 (<https://arachne.pierroton.inra.fr/QuercusPortal/>) and *Abies alba* common gardens (online

450 repository, under process). Climate data used for this study are available online

451 (<http://gentree.data.inra.fr/climate/>). R codes used for data analyses can be obtained from the

452 correspondence author upon request.

453

454 **BIOSKETCH**

455 The authors’ research aims to understand how ecological and evolutionary processes drive the

456 effects of global changes on forests, by merging expertise in ecological modelling, genetics

457 and conservation.

458 T.F. and M.B.G. conceived and designed the study; T.F. conducted the data analyses; T.F. and

459 M.B.G. wrote the manuscript that was commented and improved by B.F., A.K. and A.D.

460 **TABLES**

461 **Table 1** Estimates of *in-situ* and *ex-situ* linear mixed-effect models of individual tree height
462 data (log-transformed). *In-situ* models were fit on 5376 trees (height measurements) in 3617
463 plots nested in 22 bioclimatic regions (random groups) for *Q. petraea* and on 1304 trees in
464 904 plots nested in 15 bioclimatic regions for *A. alba*. Bioclimatic regions were added as
465 random effects in *in-situ* model for *Q. petraea* but not for *A. alba*. *Ex-situ* models were fit on
466 130241 trees (height measurements) from 141 provenances that were planted in 591 blocs
467 nested in 13 sites (random groups) for *Q. petraea* and on 13314 trees from 47 provenances
468 planted in 166 blocs nested in 6 sites for *A. alba*. No significant *ex-situ* models were found in
469 *A. alba*. The climatic variable used to compute LTC and RCC is the maximal temperature of
470 the warmest month in *Quercus petraea* and the potential evapotranspiration of the warmest
471 month in *Abies alba*. The percentage of the variance explained by the models is measured by
472 the marginal (fixed effects, m) and conditional (both fixed and random effects, c) adjusted R^2 .
473 ‘Df’ degree of freedom, ‘BAc’ sum of basal area of neighbouring competitor trees, ‘LTC’
474 long-term climate, ‘RCC’ recent climate change.

475

476 **Table 2** Mean bootstrap estimates (\pm SD) of tree height variation due to provenance and
477 plasticity effects, and their interaction, computed from *in-situ* (NFI) model and *ex-situ*
478 (common garden) model. ‘x’ and ‘x²’ indicate linear and quadratic terms respectively.
479 Significant differences of bootstrapped values (n = 200) to null values were tested using t-
480 tests; all are significant at $P < 0.001$.

481 **Table 1**

<i>Quercus petraea</i>	<i>in-situ</i>				<i>ex-situ</i>			
	Estimate (±SE)	Df	t-value	<i>P</i>	Estimate (±SE)	Df	t-value	<i>P</i>
Intercept	-13.40 (4.07)	3589	-3.3	0.001	-12.38 (2.23)	129643	-5.54	<0.001
log(age)	0.311 (0.009)	1758	34.53	<0.001	1.322 (0.008)	129643	167.71	<0.001
log(BAc)	-0.171 (0.133)	1758	-1.29	0.197				
LTC	1.269 (0.354)	19	3.59	0.002	0.903 (0.181)	129643	5	<0.001
LTC ²	-0.028 (0.008)	19	-3.58	0.002	-0.020 (0.004)	129643	-5.55	<0.001
RCC	0.440 (0.118)	3589	3.72	<0.001	0.730 (0.182)	129643	4.01	<0.001
RCC ²	-0.017 (0.003)	3589	-5.22	<0.001	-0.018 (0.004)	129643	-4.95	<0.001
LTC:RCC	-0.018 (0.005)	3589	-4.02	<0.001	-0.031 (0.007)	129643	-4.26	<0.001
log(BAc):LTC	0.013 (0.006)	1758	2.38	0.017				
log(age):RCC	0.009 (0.007)	1758	1.3	0.193	-0.012 (0.003)	129643	-3.63	<0.001
R2 (m/c) (%)	41/91				26/65			
<i>Abies alba</i>	Estimate (±SE)	Df	t-value	<i>P</i>				
Intercept	0.732 (0.649)	898	-1.13	0.259				
log(age)	0.319 (0.014)	396	23.57	<0.001				
log(BAc)	0.224 (0.123)	396	1.82	0.069				
LTC	0.024 (0.008)	898	2.95	0.003				
LTC ²	-7.3 10 ⁻⁵ (2.8 10 ⁻⁵)	898	-2.63	0.009				
RCC	0.009 (0.006)	898	1.46	0.146				
RCC ²	-9.9 10 ⁻⁵ (2.3 10 ⁻⁵)	898	-4.36	<0.001				
LTC:RCC	-8.3 10 ⁻⁵ (3.8 10 ⁻⁵)	898	-2.17	0.030				
log(BAc):LTC	-2.4 10 ⁻⁴ (9.5 10 ⁻⁴)	396	-0.25	0.803				
log(age):RCC	0.002 (8.4 10 ⁻⁴)	396	1.92	0.056				
R2 (m/c) (%)	49/86							

482

483 **Table 2**

	Provenance effect		Phenotypic plasticity		interaction
	x	x ²	x	x ²	
<i>Quercus petraea</i> <i>ex-situ</i> model	0.191 (0.026)	-7.3 10 ⁻³ (0.35 10 ⁻³)	0.712 (0.169)	-0.017 (0.003)	4.6 10 ⁻³ (0.68 10 ⁻³)
<i>Quercus petraea</i> <i>in-situ</i> model	0.548 (0.365)	-0.022 (0.009)	0.465 (0.122)	-0.018 (0.003)	0.018 (0.007)
<i>Abies alba</i> <i>in-situ</i> model	0.014 (0.007)	-8.6 10 ⁻⁵ (2.1 10 ⁻⁵)	0.010 (0.007)	-9.2 10 ⁻⁵ (2.1 10 ⁻⁵)	1.0 10 ⁻⁴ (0.4 10 ⁻⁴)

484

485 **FIGURES**

486 **Figure 1** Workflow of the modelling approach and validation methods. We used individual
487 tree height data from National Forest Inventories (NFI) to calibrate a mixed-effect model (*in-*
488 *situ* model') as a function of long-term climate (LTC) of the bioclimatic region and short-
489 term climate (STC) of the forest plot to disentangle local adaptation, plasticity and their
490 interaction on intraspecific trait variation. To validate our approach, we compared *in-situ*
491 model predictions with independent observations of tree height variation in common gardens
492 where trait differences among populations of different geographical origin (i.e., the
493 provenance) and their plasticity can be separated. *In-situ* model predictions of tree height
494 variation among provenances and among planting sites were compared to observations in
495 common gardens (*validation using common garden data*) and to predictions from a parallel
496 model calibrated using common garden data (*validation using ex-situ model predictions*).
497 *Validation using ex-situ model predictions* needs common garden data covering large climatic
498 gradients (as is the case of *Quercus petraea* in this study) which is not always feasible, while
499 *validation using common garden data* can be used also with scarce common data networks
500 (as is the case of *Abies alba* in this study).

501

502 **Figure 2** Comparison of *in-situ* model (NFI) and *ex-situ* model (common gardens)
503 predictions of provenance (a) and plasticity effects (b), and the total component (c) of tree
504 height variation, recorded in common gardens in *Quercus petraea*. Pearson correlation
505 coefficients between *ex-situ* and *in-situ* model predictions are reported. (d-e) Model
506 predictions of plastic responses among provenances (provenance \times plasticity interaction).
507 Temperature optima for cold, core and warm provenances are indicated by horizontal
508 boxplots; vertical coloured lines indicate mean optimum values. Significant differences in

509 temperature optimum were tested using Kruskal-Wallis tests: $\chi^2 = 105.2$ in d) and $\chi^2 = 104.2$
510 in e), $P < 0.001$ for both. Shaded areas and lines represent the standard deviation around
511 average model predictions (computed by bootstrapping in a-c). Predictions were scaled
512 between 0–1 independently for *in-situ* and *ex-situ* models. Model parameters (coefficients
513 and significance) are presented in Table 1. Validation analyses using common garden data are
514 presented in Appendix S3.

515

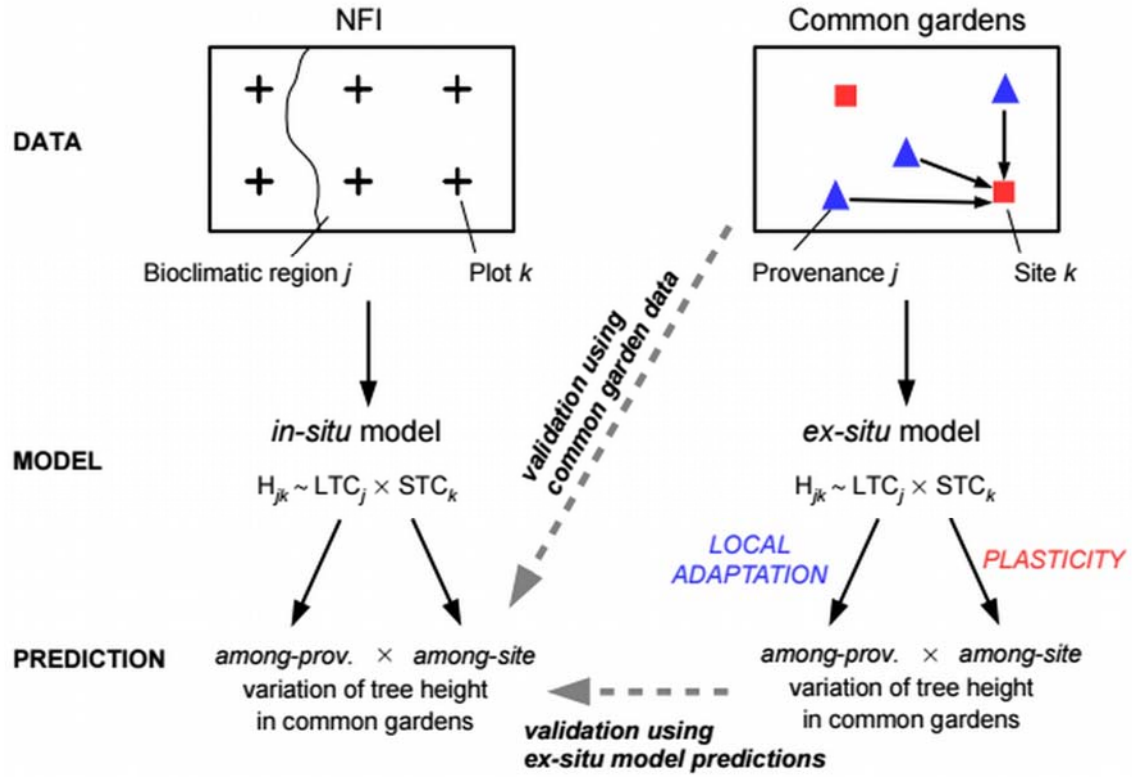
516 **Figure 3** Comparison of *in-situ* (NFI) model predictions and common garden data (*ex-situ*)
517 estimates of provenance (a) and plasticity effects (b), and the total component (c) of tree
518 height variation, recorded in common gardens in *Abies alba*. Points represent provenance
519 means in a) and provenance-by-site means in b-c that were computed according to the
520 validation method using common garden data (see Fig. 1). Computation of provenance and
521 plasticity effects, and the total variation is described in Appendix S3. Pearson correlation
522 coefficients between *ex-situ* data and *in-situ* model predictions are reported. (d) *In-situ* model
523 predictions of plastic responses among provenances (provenance \times plasticity interaction).
524 Temperature optima for cold, core and warm provenances are indicated by horizontal
525 boxplots; vertical coloured lines indicate mean optimum values. Significant differences in
526 temperature optimum were tested using Kruskal-Wallis tests: $\chi^2 = 105.2$, $P < 0.001$. Shaded
527 areas and lines represent the standard deviation around average model predictions (computed
528 by bootstrapping in a-c). Height values were scaled between 0–1 independently for *in-situ*
529 predictions and common garden data. *In-situ* model parameters (coefficients and significance)
530 are presented in Table 1.

531

532 **Figure 4** Spatial predictions of *Quercus petraea* range-wide variation in tree height using *ex-*
533 *situ* (a, c, e, g) and *in-situ* models (b, d, f, h). Maps indicate the provenance effect (a-b),
534 plasticity (c-d), their interaction (e-f) and the total variation of tree height (g-h). The shaded
535 area represents model predictions outside the natural distribution range of the species.
536 Predictions are for 12-years-old trees, with neighbour basal area set to average conditions (30
537 m² ha⁻¹) in the *in-situ* model.

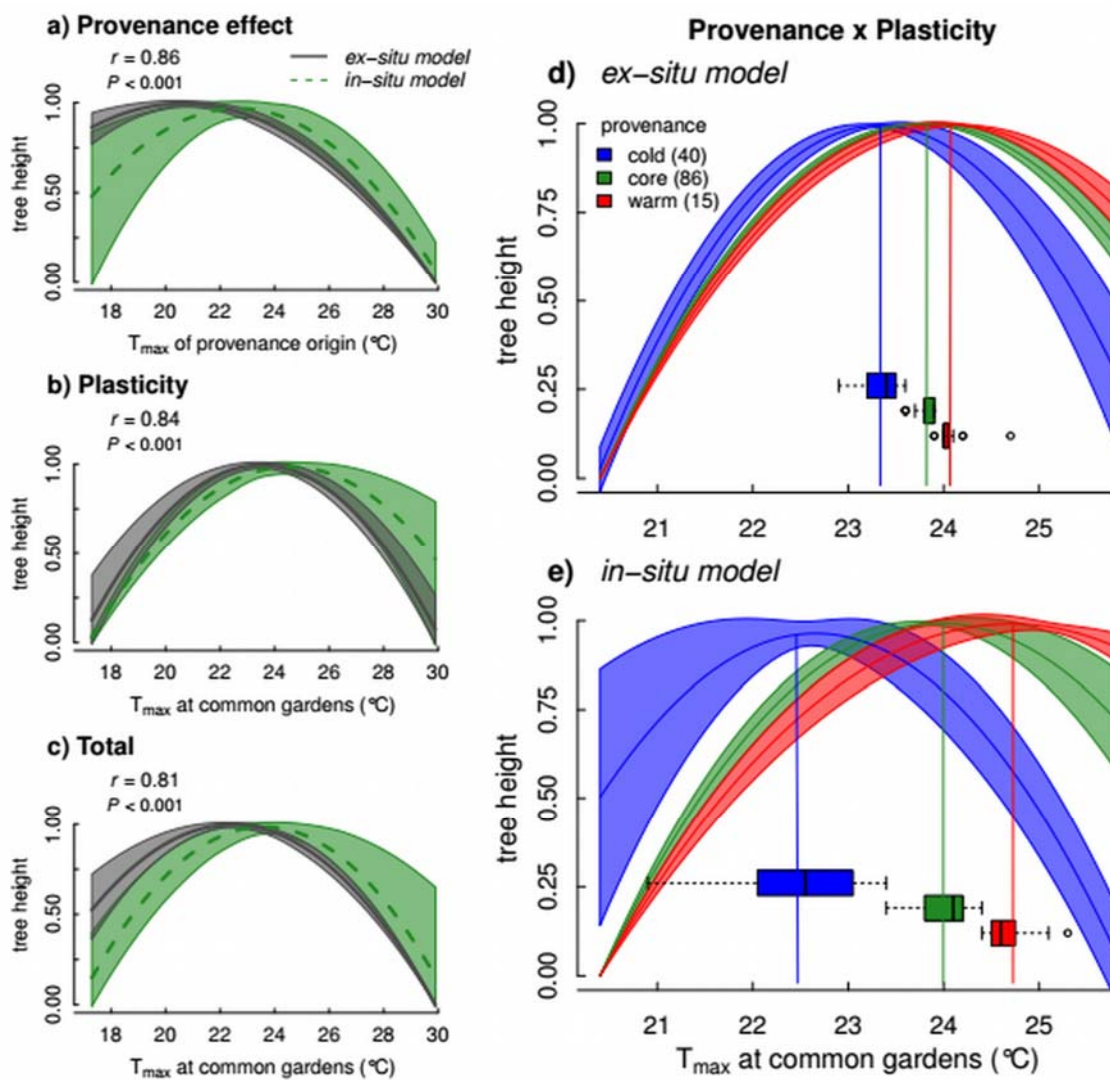
538

539 **Figure 5** Spatial predictions of *Abies alba* range-wide variation in tree height using the *in-*
540 *situ* model. Maps indicate the provenance effect (a), plasticity (b), their interaction (c) and the
541 total variation of tree height (d). The shaded area represents model predictions outside the
542 natural distribution range of the species. Predictions are for 12-years-old trees, with
543 neighbour basal area set to average conditions (30 m² ha⁻¹).



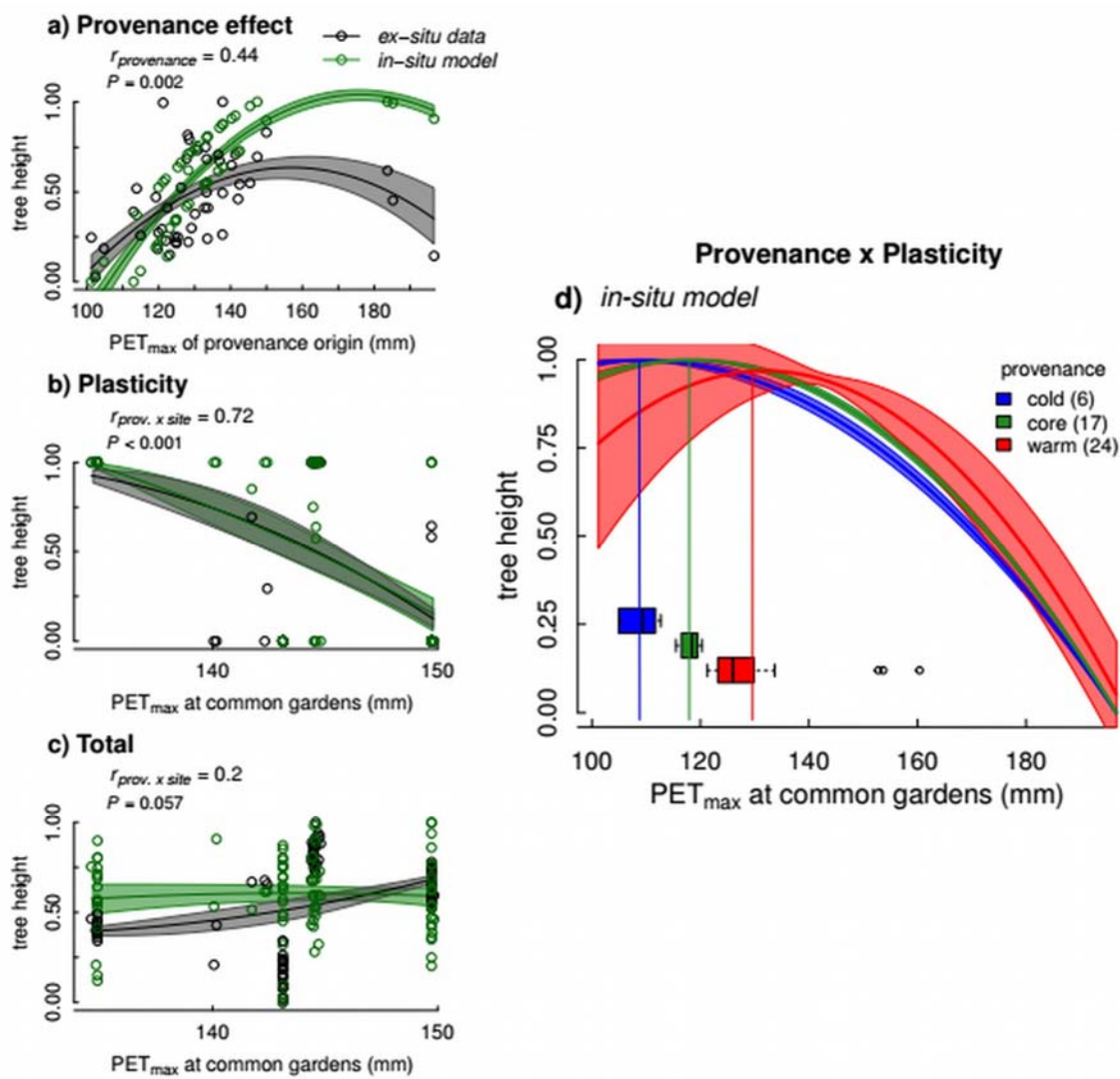
544

545 **Figure 1**



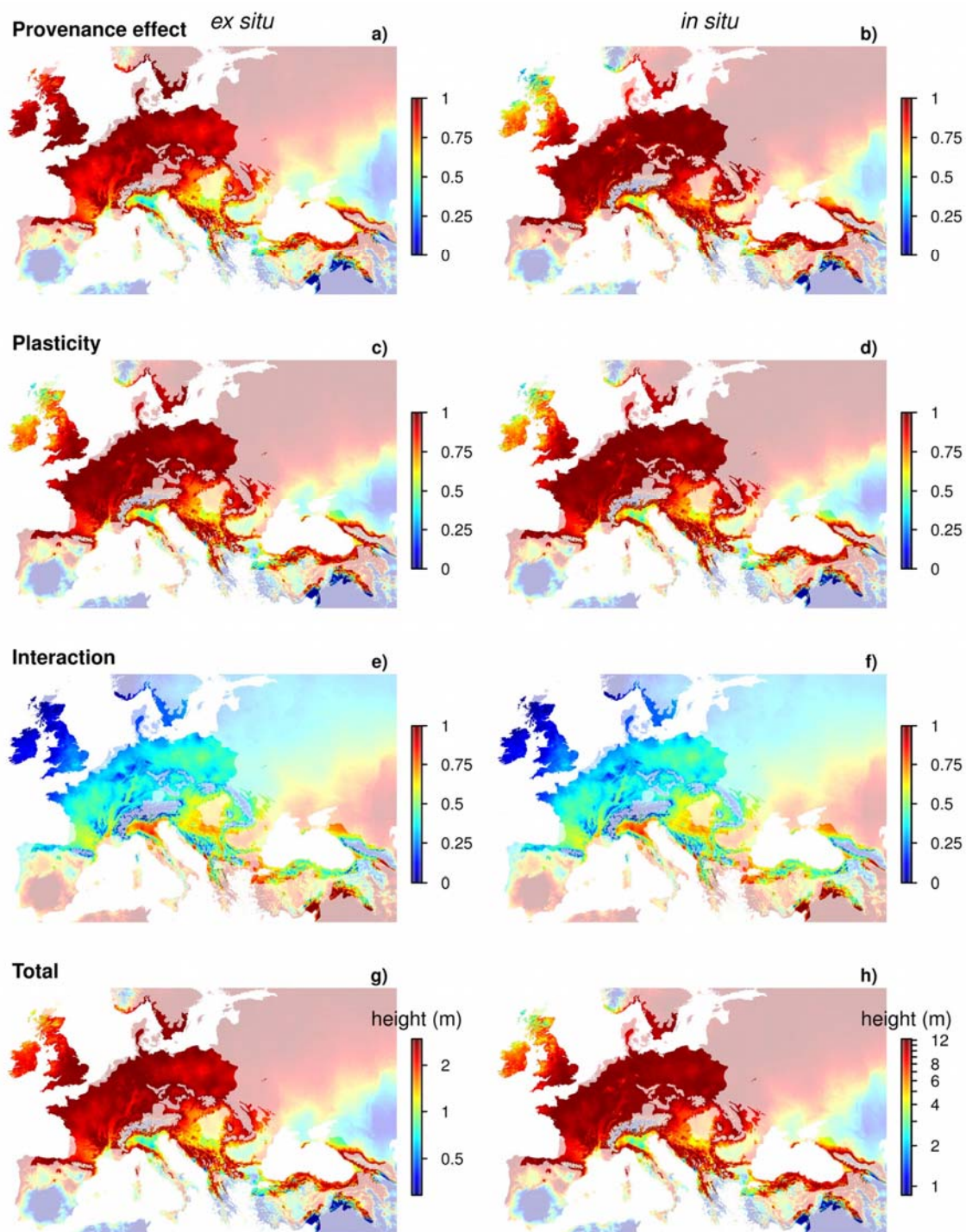
546

547 **Figure 2**



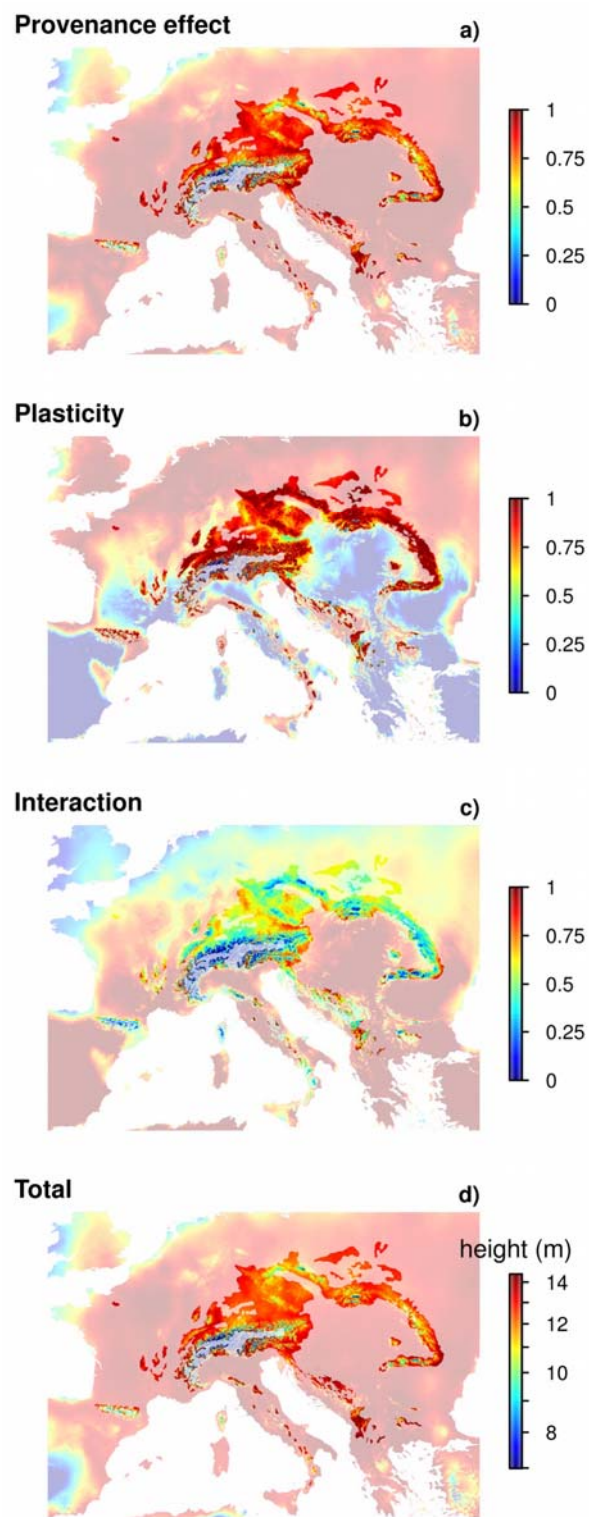
548

549 **Figure 3**



550

551 **Figure 4**



552

553 **Figure 5**