Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



Environmental and Experimental Botany

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/envexpbot



Local canopy diversity does not influence phenotypic expression and plasticity of tree seedlings exposed to different resource availabilities

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Species richness Light treatment Nutrient treatment Trait variation Functional groups Phenotypic plasticity

ABSTRACT

Species diversity seems to favour the environmental heterogeneity and habitat complexity, which in turn favour the selection of greater levels of phenotypic plasticity of plant species. While recent evidence suggested that local species diversity and environmental heterogeneity act as selective pressures over mean traits and plasticity for herbs, which adjust their traits to the identity and species richness of their neighbors, little is known for tree species. Here, we investigated shifts in the phenotypic expression and plasticity of seedlings of two functional groups (broadleaved and conifers) coming from communities with different canopy species richness in two contrasting forest types (a hemiboreal and a Mediterranean forest). We carried out a greenhouse experiment to test the response of seedlings to different light and nutrient availability, measuring different functional traits related to resource acquisition. Our results indicated that seedlings coming from monospecific and more diverse communities had similar phenotypic expression and response capacity to the study treatments. This finding suggests that canopy species richness did not exert a detectable selective pressure on tree phenotypes and plasticity at this early stage. Additionally, we found great differences in the phenotypic expression and plasticity between the two major functional groups (conifers and broadleaved species). Specifically, we found that broadleaves reached higher mean values in key functional traits by a greater plasticity to both light and nutrient treatment than coniferous species, mainly in the Mediterranean forest. This finding suggests that broadleaved species potentially have a higher capacity to respond to future changing environmental conditions than conifers at early stages, conferring an advantage that can be crucial for the species competitive ability for resources and, therefore, for survival.

1. Introduction

In forest ecosystems, trees are exposed to multiple environmental factors varying considerably in space and time (Valladares et al., 2007). Phenotypic plasticity is an important and well-known mechanism by which individual plants are able to cope with environmental heterogeneity, adjusting their phenotypes (i.e. functional traits) to shifts in the environment (Pigliucci, 2001). Thus, the ecological range of species may be partly determined by the capacity of their individuals to show plastic responses to the environment (Sultan, 2001; Valladares et al., 2014, 2007). Moreover, individuals rarely present the same plastic response, even within species. Indeed, broad evidence shows differentiation in plasticity patterns at different organization levels such as functional groups, species and populations (Balaguer et al., 2001; Sardans et al., 2006; Vaz et al., 2011; Wyka et al., 2012). Divergence in the plasticity of traits among individuals may be promoted by the functional environmental heterogeneity (i.e. heterogeneity functionally relevant for a plant; Gomez et al., 2004) (Alpert and Simms, 2002; Gianoli and González-Teuber, 2005). Some theoretical studies suggested that greater levels of functional environmental heterogeneity should select for higher plastic responses (reviewed by Matesanz et al., 2010; Pigliucci, 2001), with empirical evidence for some key ecological factors such as heterogeneity in light (De Kroon et al., 2009, 2005; Pugnaire and Valladares, 1999) or nutrient availability (De Kroon et al., 2009; Wijesinghe and Hutchings, 1999)

A forest attribute that can trigger environmental heterogeneity is species richness. As the number of species increases, the number of interactions among species also raises, leading to complex networks where multiple ecological factors and trophic levels interact (Rzanny and Voigt, 2012). For instance, plant species diversity alters soil

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https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2018.08.023

Received 26 April 2018; Received in revised form 14 August 2018; Accepted 17 August 2018 Available online 22 August 2018

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bacterial community compositions and, subsequently, the nutrient abundance within the rhizosphere (Schlatter et al., 2015). It is based on the species-specific modification of the ecological conditions on its influence area, at both above- and below-ground levels (Rothe and Binkley, 2001; Yankelevich et al., 2006). The creation of heterogeneous conditions reciprocally favours community species diversity by providing different niches to be filled by different species (Stein et al., 2014; Tews et al., 2004). As a result, the relationship between species richness and environmental heterogeneity becomes positively reciprocal. Assuming more environmental heterogeneity in species-rich communities, plasticity of functional traits may be very advantageous for plants. It may be advantageous as adjustments of traits in response to the local biotic diversity may reduce competition among heterospecifics leading to a better use of the available resources and an increase in species complementarity (Aschehoug and Callaway, 2014; Ashton et al., 2010; Berg and Ellers, 2010; Callaway et al., 2003; Levins, 1979). Moreover, if plants reach optimal plant performance and fitness under these heterogeneous environmental conditions thanks to plastic responses, then plasticity may become adaptive, and hence, subject for selection (Matesanz et al., 2010; Pigliucci, 2001). While several studies have reported both local species diversity and environmental heterogeneity as selective pressures over mean traits and plasticity for herbaceous species (Gubsch et al., 2011; Lipowsky et al., 2015; Roscher et al., 2011; Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014), little is known for longlived species such as trees.

In this study, we investigated the phenotypic expression (i.e. trait means in each environment) and phenotypic plasticity patterns of tree seedlings coming from communities with different canopy richness in response to two contrasted light and nutrient availabilities. Specifically, we hypothesized that plants from species-rich communities have evolved in more heterogeneous sites, where increased plasticity would be a target of selection, and therefore, we expect higher plasticity in comparison to plants coming from monospecific communities. Additionally, differential plastic responses among plants from communities differing in species richness could be also reflected in different phenotypic expressions (i.e. trait mean values) in each environment with different resource availability. To test this hypothesis, we collected seeds from tree species belonging to two different functional groups (conifers and broadleaved species) in communities with different species richness levels in the canopy, namely monospecific, mixture of 2-3 species and mixture of 4-5 species, in two contrasting European forests. Then, we carried out a common garden experiment, in which plants, keeping the identification of their origin community, grew in three environments differing in light and nutrient availability. We measured different functional traits associated with light and nutrient acquisition to address the following questions. 1) Do seedlings from communities varying in canopy richness differ in the phenotypic expression (i.e. trait means in each environment) as well as in phenotypic plasticity in response to light and nutrient availability? 2) Do the plastic responses of seedlings have any pattern according to their functional group and type of forest?

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Background experimental design and seed collection

We collected seeds from dominant tree species growing naturally in two contrasting European forests, a hemiboreal forest in the Bialowieza Park, Poland (52.7 °N, 23.9 °E) and a continental Mediterranean-mixed forest located in the Alto Tajo Natural Park, Spain (40.7 °N, 1.9 °W) (Table A1 in Supplementary material). The hemiboreal forest encompassed five tree dominant species: Scots pine (*Pinus sylvestris* L.) and Norway spruce (*Picea abies* [L.] Karst.) as coniferous species and pedunculate oak (*Quercus robur* L.), silver birch (*Betula pendula*) and hornbeam (*Carpinus betulus* L.) as broadleaved species. And, the Mediterranean forest includes Scots pine (*P. sylvestris*) and European black pine (*Pinus nigra* Arn.) as conifers, and holm oak (*Quercus ilex* L.) and Portuguese oak (*Quercus faginea* Lam.) as broadleaved species. For this study, we used three out of five tree dominant species (*P. sylvestris, P. abies and Q. robur*) from the hemiboreal forest and all dominant tree species from the Mediterranean forest.

Seeds from each selected species and forest type were collected from 2 to 6 individuals in different plots, which encompassed three different canopy diversity levels of the dominant tree species in each forest: monocultures (hereafter 'monospecific canopy'), plots with 2 and 3 species coexisting (hereafter 'medium canopy diversity') and plots with 4 and 5 coexisting species (hereafter 'high canopy diversity') (Table A2 in Supplementary material). In the Mediterranean forest, seed production of broadleaf species was so poor in high-diverse plots the year of collection, that we only collected seeds of conifers. After collection, we pooled seeds from different individuals collected in a given plot and stored them to 4 °C until the beginning of the experiment.

The plots from where the seeds were sampled are part of a broader network of plots designed within the European project FunDivEUROPE (www.fundiveurope.eu) to test the role of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning. Particularly, plots were set under two main criteria: i) each study tree species was present in all diversity levels and, ii) the relative abundances of the dominant tree species were similar in mixed stands (i.e. maximum evenness). More information about the experimental design can be found in Baeten et al., (2013).

A brief description of the averages of the main environmental characteristics for each selected forest, in terms of light, soil properties and others, such as altitude or mean annual precipitation and temperature, can be found in the Table A1 in Supplementary material.

2.2. Greenhouse experiment setup and treatments

The experiment was carried out in two consecutive years, from mid-November 2012 to mid-June 2013 for broadleaved species, and from mid-November 2013 to mid-July 2014 for coniferous species. We sowed a total of 1540 seeds of broadleaved species (423 seeds of Q. ilex, 666 seeds of Q. faginea and 451 seeds of Q. robur) in pots of 1.6 L, and 8845 seeds of coniferous species (1782 seeds of P. sylvestris and 3125 of P. abies from hemiboreal forest; 1977 of P. sylvestris and 1961 of P. nigra from the Mediterranean forest) in trays of 32 single-cells (400 cc; $61 \times 59 \text{ x} 200 \text{ mm}$). Pots and trays were filled with a 2:1:1 mixture of peat moss (Kekkilä White 420 F6, Projar, Spain) (autoclaved), vermiculite (0-3 mm grain, Projar, Spain) and washed coarse sand (0-4 mm grain, Leroy Merlin, Spain). We identified each pot and single-cell with the forest type, plot ID (associated with the canopy richness level), species and individual ID. We placed the pots and trays randomly in the greenhouse, regularly moved to avoid microsite effects. Plants were grown under favorable controlled conditions of light and water during two and a half months for broadleaved and three and a half months for coniferous species. The number of seedlings germinated and suitable for the oncoming experiment totalled 754 plants of broadleaved (213 plants of Q. ilex, 387 plants of Q. faginea and 154 plants of Q. robur) and 1991 plants of conifers (473 plants of P. sylvestris and 233 plants of P.abies from the hemiboreal forest and 571 of P. sylvestris and 714 of P. nigra from the Mediterranean forest). See Table A2 in Supplementary material for details about sample sizes per forest, species and canopy richness level.

Then, plants were divided into three groups to apply different conditions in light and nutrient supply, two key abiotic factors for plants with high temporal and spatial heterogeneity in natural conditions. Specifically, the conditions exerted on each group were: i) a sunlimited environment with 20% of full sunlight radiation (\sim 490 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) ('Shade environment'); ii) a control environment, meaning 50% of full sunlight radiation (\sim 1350 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) and basic nutrient supply provided by the peat moss (0.045 g N/1 – 0.03 g P/1 – 0.09 g K/1); and iii) a high nutrient-supplied environment, receiving a dose equivalent between 0.22–0.31 g N /1, 0.12–0.18 g P /1 and 0.23–0.34 g K

/l of a Plantacote mix 8/9-month slow-release fertilizer 14-8-15 N-P-K, (Plantacote plus, Projar, Spain) ('High nutrient environment'). Summarizing, we tested the phenotypic expression and plasticity of seedlings in response to two independent treatments: a shading treatment (from 50% vs 20% of full radiation, i.e. from ~1350 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ to ~490 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) and a nutrient treatment (from 0.045 g N/l -0.03 g P/l - 0.09 g K/l to 0.22–0.31 g N/l - 0.12–0.18 g P/l - 0.23–0.34 g K/l nutrients) (Fig. A1 in Supplementary material). Throughout the experiment, all plants were regularly well watered, and also temperature and humidity (4–20 mA) sensors (Sistemas electrónicos Progres SA, Lleida, España). The mean day temperature (8 a.m. -10 p.m.) was 22.4 ± 1.7 °C and the air humidity of 49.2 ± 10.5%.

2.3. Functional traits measurements

We measured a set of traits at the end of experiment (after 3.5 months) associated with the plant fitness and distinct aspects of the plant functioning and ecological strategy (physiology, morphology), particularly those that have a strong relationship with the functional significance for resource acquisition (Pérez-Harguindeguy et al., 2013) (Table 1). Specific details on trait measurement protocol can be found in the supplementary material (Appendix B).

2.4. Statistical analysis

We assessed the phenotypic expression and plasticity separately for each treatment (light and nutrient treatment) and forest type (hemiboreal and Mediterranean forests) since both forests differed in species and richness levels. We performed linear mixed-effects models (Bates, 2010) for each particular functional trait, with canopy species richness (SR; monospecific -1 species-, medium -2/3 species mixture- and high -4/5 species mixture), functional group (FG; broadleaved vs conifers) and treatment (Tr; control vs. shade or control vs. high nutrient), and all possible double interactions, as fixed factors. Finally, we included 'Plot' and 'Species' as random factors to account for the intrinsic characteristics of each plot and species identity.

Trait ~ Tr x SR + Tr x FG + FG x SR + (1|Plot) + (1|Species).

We considered a significant treatment effect as evidence for plasticity in the trait (e.g. Matesanz and Milla, 2018). A significant effect of SR would indicate differences in the mean trait values of seedlings coming from different canopy richness (i.e. dissimilarity in the phenotypic expression). A significant Tr x SR interaction would imply different responses of seedlings coming from communities with different canopy richness levels to the experimental treatments (i.e. non-parallel reaction norms for a given trait). A significant Tr x FG interaction would indicate differences in plastic responses to treatments between broadleaved and coniferous species. When double interactions were significant, we ran posthoc analyses to test differences in the slope means between groups.

All statistical analyses were carried out in R v. 3.2.2 (R Development Core Team, 2015) using the packages 'lme4' (Bates et al., 2014) and 'lsmeans' (Lenth, 2016).

3. Results

3.1. Trait expression and plasticity

Seedlings were unequally affected by treatments, that is, their phenotypic expression was more affected by nutrient than by light availability in both forests (Tables 2 and 3). In general, seedlings under higher nutrient availability were significantly taller with larger crowns and larger leaves with lower LDMC (Table 3; Figs. 1 and 2). Additionally, seedlings from the Mediterranean forest under a high

Table 2

Results of the linear mixed models testing the plasticity and phenotypic expression (trait means) of different functional traits to the light availability per forest type (hemiboreal and Mediterranean forest).

	FG df = 1	SR df = 2	Tr df = 1	SR x FG $df = 2$	Tr x FG df = 1	Tr x SR df = 2				
	uii	ui 2	ui i	ui 2	ui i	ui 2				
(a) Hemiboreal										
1. Growth-relate	d trait									
RGR	1.89	0.58	2.46	1.29	0.28	0.75				
2. Architecture-related traits										
Height	19.21†	1.70	0.01	4.67	6.99**	0.70				
Crown height	-	0.58	1.01	-	-	1.47				
No. of leaves	-	0.32	1.06	-	-	0.48				
Internode length	-	-	-	-	-	-				
3. Morphology leaf traits										
Leaf area	11.43	0.37	9.19**	5.80**	21.90***	1.09				
SLA	5.47	1.38	14.74***	0.17	1.09	2.55				
LDMC	18.57***	0.47	7.02**	0.03	1.84	0.25				
4. Physiological traits										
F _v /F _m	0.06	1.09	0.88	0.89	5.77*	3.69*				
Stom. conduct.	-	0.04	0.00	-	-	0.10				
(b) Continental Mediterranean-mixed										
1. Growth-related	d trait									
RGR	26.55***	0.04	1.39	0.12	44.01***	0.40				
2. Architecture-re-	elated traits									
Height	1.62	0.92	1.06	0.71	71.07***	0.57				
Crown height	-	3.03†	3.15†	-	-	3.13*				
No. of leaves	-	0.98	0.44	-	-	0.17				
Internode length	-	0.79	54.40***	-	-	1.22				
3. Morphology leaf traits										
Leaf area	97.62**	1.65	2.87†	2.12	39.97***	0.30				
SLA	0.79	0.83	36.02***	0.21	7.87**	0.49				
LDMC	61.75*	0.13	63.75***	0.02	34.66***	0.70				
4. Physiological traits										
F _v /F _m	21.88***	3.11†	4.99*	2.76	97.90***	0.86				
Stom. conduct.	-	0.30	0.07	-	-	0.89				

FG: functional group (broadleaved *vs* conifer species). SR: canopy species richness of communities from where seeds were collected (monospecific, medium and high canopy richness). Tr: light treatment (Control-50% of full sun exposition- *vs* Shade environment -20% of full sun exposition-). Data shown are the *F* values, the degrees of freedom (df) and the statistical significance level of each model using Type III tests. $\dagger P < 0.10$; $\ast P < 0.05$, $\ast \ast P < 0.01$, $\ast \ast \ast P < 0.001$. We used the symbol (–) when traits were measured only in one functional group and thereby, not included in the model.

nutrient availability also presented larger amount of leaves, higher stomatal conductances and F_v/F_m (Table 3; Figs. 1 and 2). Under the light treatment, seedlings from both forests mainly presented morphological changes in leaves (Fig. 2), with large SLA and reduced LDMC when they grew in shaded conditions.

We did not find differences among mean trait values of seedlings coming from communities differing in canopy species richness ('SR' effect) for any trait in both treatments (Tables 2 and 3). Additionally, we found that seedlings from different canopy diversities responded similarly (i.e. parallel slopes in reaction norms) to both treatments (i.e. non-significant Tr. x SR interaction) for most of the traits. As an exception, seedlings from monospecific and medium canopy richness communities in the hemiboreal forest presented higher plasticity in relative growth rate to a high nutrient environment than those coming from high canopy richness; and seedlings from monospecific communities had a higher plastic response to shaded conditions than those that came from mixed communities (Figs. 1 and 2). In the Mediterranean forest, conifers from monospecific communities presented a larger significant plastic response in crown height to both light and nutrient treatments than those from mixed communities (Fig. 1).

3.2. The influence of the functional group on trait expression and plasticity

We observed divergent responses between the two functional groups to both treatments (' $Tr \ x \ FG$ ' interaction), mainly in the

Table 3

Results of the linear mixed models testing the plasticity and phenotypic expression (trait means) of different functional traits to the nutrient availability per forest type (hemiboreal and Mediterranean forest).

	FG df = 1	SR df = 2	Tr df = 1	SR x FG df = 2	Tr x FG df = 1	Tr x SR df = 2						
(a) Hemiboreal												
1. Growth-related trait												
RGR	2.37	0.59	0.82	0.66	0.14	3.21*						
2. Architecture-related traits												
Height	3.85	4.07†	12.60***	2.20	8.25**	2.10						
Crown height	-	2.37	12.15***	-	-	1.42						
No. of leaves	-	2.64	1.59	-	-	2.87						
Internode	-	-	-	-	-	-						
length												
3. Morphology leaf traits												
Leaf area	6.28	0.21	32.49***	3.93*	7.88**	1.25						
SLA	3.02	0.46	3.99*	0.00	0.63	3.12						
LDMC	24.80***	0.27	11.10***	0.01	3.57†	0.02						
4. Physiological traits												
F_v/F_m	0.07	0.07	0.49	0.84	0.06	0.80						
Stom.	-	2.02	1.54	-	-	0.85						
conduct.												
(b) Continental	Mediterrar	ean-mix	ed									
1. Growth-relat	ted trait											
RGR	12.18*	0.67	2.13	4.20*	34.50***	0.01						
2. Architecture-related traits												
Height	1.69	0.05	7.12**	0.17	55.79***	0.32						
Crown height	_	4.35*	40.05***	_	-	3.12*						
No. of leaves	_	0.37	31.31***	_	-	0.47						
Internode	_	0.01	10.61**	_	-	0.17						
length												
3. Morphology leaf traits												
Leaf area	58.75*	1.23	144.40***	1.24	82.78***	1.54						
SLA	3.37	0.40	50.74***	1.26	119.03***	0.26						
LDMC	62.50**	0.53	4.40*	0.13	0.04	1.44						
4. Physiological traits												
F _v /F _m	26.18***	0.51	40.87***	0.88	3.12†	0.56						
Stom.	-	0.04	21.79***	_	_	0.94						
conduct.												

FG: functional group (broadleaved *vs* conifer species). SR: canopy species richness of communities from where seeds were collected (monospecific, medium and high canopy richness). Tr: nutrient treatment (control *vs* high nutrient supply). Data shown are the *F* values, the degrees of freedom (df) and the statistical significance level of each model using Type III tests. $\dagger P < 0.10$; * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001. We used the symbol (–) when traits were measured only in a functional group and thereby, these main terms are not included in the model.

Mediterranean forest (Tables 2 and 3). In this forest, broadleaved seedlings showed larger mean trait values and plasticity in RGR and height in response to shaded and high nutrient supply conditions than conifers (Fig. 3; Tables 2 and 3), and higher mean trait values and plasticity of height and F_v/F_m than conifers in response to light treatment (Figs. 3 and 4). Moreover, both functional groups increased significantly their LA in response to higher nutrient supply, and increased SLA and reduced LDMC in response to higher light availability. In general, for these morphological traits, the plasticity was greater in conifers than in broadleaved seedlings, except for SLA in response to light (Fig. 4).

4. Discussion

Ecological theory predicts a selection of greater levels of phenotypic plasticity with increasing environmental heterogeneity, which in turn is often hypothesized to be induced by canopy species richness in forest ecosystems. Nevertheless, we found similar mean trait values and levels of phenotypic plasticity in seedlings coming from either monospecific and mixed communities with different levels of canopy diversity. In other words, seedlings from monospecific communities adjusted their



Fig. 1. Reaction norms of growth-related and architecture-related traits under light and nutrient treatments of seedlings coming from communities with different canopy richness levels (black circle: high mixture of species richness -4 and 5 species mixtures-; white circle: medium mixture of species richness -2 and 3 species mixtures-; grey circle: monospecific -1 species-) and type of forest. Trait means \pm S.E.M. for the species within each richness level included in the study are shown. A significant SR × Treatment, i.e. seedlings from different canopy richness levels differ in their plasticity, is indicated over the reaction norms (lines) with: (†) P < 0.10 and (*) P <0.05. Significant differences in the mean trait value among seedlings coming from different canopy diversities within each treatment are also indicated over the mean values (points) of each treatment with (†): P < 0.10 and (*) P <0.05. Note that the Y axis has a logarithm or square root transformation for some traits.

traits to environmental shifts similarly to plants coming from communities with higher species diversity. Our findings suggest that species richness in the canopy does not exert detectable selective pressure on tree phenotypes and plasticity at this early stage.

4.1. Influence of canopy species richness on trait means and plasticity

Few studies have addressed the diversity-induced differences in plasticity and phenotypic expression, and the existing ones have mainly focused on herbs (Burns and Strauss, 2012; Gubsch et al., 2011; Lipowsky et al., 2015, 2011; Roscher et al., 2011). Some of these works based on the Jena experiment (i.e. a large biodiversity grassland experiment; http://www.the-jena-experiment.de) have reported

variations in the trait means of plant height and mainly in foliar traits such as leaf length, SLA, foliar δ^{13} C isotope in individuals growing in monospecific communities in comparison to individuals growing in experimental mixed communities with different level of species richness (Gubsch et al., 2011; Lipowsky et al., 2015; Roscher et al., 2011; Zuppinger-Dingley et al., 2014). These studies suggested that species coexistence is enhanced by trait displacement. In this same line, other studies carried out in another long-term grassland plant experiment (Cedar Creek reserve, Minnesota) found that the spatiotemporal resource partitioning among dominant herb species in the community seemed to be very effective in promoting species coexistence and ecosystem stability (McKane et al., 1990; Tilman et al., 2006). Meanwhile, the effect of diversity on phenotypic expression and plasticity in long-



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Fig. 2. Reaction norms of morphological leaf traits and physiological traits under light and nutrient treatments of seedlings coming from communities with different canopy richness levels (black circle: high mixture of species richness -4 and 5 species mixtures-; white circle: medium mixture of species richness -2and 3 species mixtures-; grey circle: monospecific -1 species-) and type of forest. Trait means \pm S.E.M. for the species within each richness level included in the study are shown. A significant SR × Treatment, i.e. seedlings from different canopy species richness levels differ in their plasticity, is indicated over the reaction norms (lines) with (*): P < 0.05. Significant differences in the mean trait value among seedlings coming from different canopy diversities within each treatment are also indicated over the mean values (points) for each treatment with (†): P < 0.10. Note that the Y axis has a logarithm transformation for some traits.

lived species has remained almost unexplored and in general poorly understood under real field conditions (but see Aschehoug and Callaway, 2014; Callaway et al., 2003). In our study, we found that seedlings from tree communities differing in species diversity had similar trait mean values and plasticity (Figs. 1 and 2). Our findings do not match our expectation that more heterogeneous environments induce higher plasticity (Alpert and Simms, 2002; Baythavong et al., 2011; Gianoli, 2004; Gianoli and González-Teuber, 2005). In particular, they suggested that more heterogeneous sites in terms of biotic conditions did not exert enough selective pressure on mother trees to trigger shifts in traits heritable by their progeny, including the plasticity to cope with the study environmental changes. phenotypes and responded similarly to plants from more diverse communities might then result from the convergence in abiotic filters (i.e. low light intensity). If the communities studied are mainly shaped by abiotic filtering processes, seedlings would tend to converge toward similar trait values that are optimum to cope with local abiotic conditions, which explaining our results and match previous studies (Mediavilla and Escudero, 2004; Mitchell and Bakker, 2014). No differential response among plants from monocultures and more diverse communities might also be due to an insufficient intensity of the environmental shift along the study gradient, i.e. species richness gradient of the tree canopy and the ensuing environmental heterogeneity associated. Nevertheless, studies conducted in the same study forests have documented perceptible diversity-induced changes of species

The fact that plants from monospecific canopies exhibited similar



Fig. 3. Reaction norms of relative growth rate and height traits to light and nutrient treatments for conifers and broadleaved seedlings per type of forest. Trait means \pm S.E.M. per species of each functional group included in the study are shown. Α significant FG × Treatment, i.e. when broadleaved and conifers differ in their plasticity to the treatment, is indicated with asterisks over the reaction norms (lines) (** P < 0.01, *** P <0.001). Differences in the mean trait between functional groups within treatments are indicated with asterisks over the points (\dagger : P <0.10, * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P <0.001). Note that the Y axis has a logarithm transformation for both traits. Black circles represent broadleaved species, and empty circles represent conifers.

phenotypes of adult tress (Benavides et al., Unpublished results) and ecosystem functions under the same diversity gradient, e.g. the higher above-ground wood production in mixed than in monospecific forest stands by complementary light use strategies among neighbouring trees (Jucker et al., 2014).

Another explanation for the lack of diversity effect may lie in the ontogenetic signal on plant responses, i.e. we did not find differences in traits or plasticity at this early stage, but trees might respond later when increasing competition for resources triggers greater phenotypic differentiation (Mediavilla and Escudero, 2004; Mitchell and Bakker, 2014; Moll and Brown, 2008). It is known that the ability to respond in a plastic way is not stable along developmental stages (Watson et al., 1995), and conditions experienced at some stages may be reflected in their response to the environment in later developmental phases (Sultan, 2000). In this sense, ontogeny plays an important role in changing trait expression and plasticity of tree individuals along their lifetime as some works have already reported (Cornelissen et al., 2003; Huber et al., 2012; Lasky et al., 2015).

The different outcomes from experiments using herbaceous species vs trees reflect the challenge of studying long-lived species, particularly in nature, that entails difficulties not only associated to dealing with large size individuals, but also long temporal scales from human perspective. Populations of tree species typically require much longer time than herbs to express differentiation and local adaptation to the environment (Aitken and Bemmels, 2016), and observers must deal with uncertainties regarding the tracking of past external factors and environmental conditions occurring much earlier than the period of the study. Although species with long lifespan tissues may limit the plasticity due to the high construction costs of these tissues (Maire et al., 2013), long-lived individuals face highly variable conditions during their entire lives and their acclimation frequently requires larger ontogenetic variation that bestows higher phenotypic variation display compared to short-lived individuals (Borges, 2009; Sultan, 1987). Clearly, long-living species such as trees deserve more attention to disentangle these complex logistical barriers at the time to study the evolution of plasticity in these woody systems.

4.2. The influence of functional groups on trait means and plasticity

Large differences in plasticity to both treatments were found between the two functional groups in the Mediterranean forest for most of the traits, being less significant in the hemiboreal forest (Tables 2 and 3). We found that broadleaved individuals in the Mediterranean forest exhibited higher plasticity levels, conferring higher relative growth, height, photochemical efficiency and SLA mean values in shaded and nutrient-rich environments than coniferous seedlings (Figs. 1 and 2). A competitive advantage of angiosperms over conifers has been reported in other studies, which showed higher photosynthetic rates related to the stability of photosystem II (Major and Johnsen, 1996) and stomatal conductance favouring their growth rates in productive habitats (Lusk et al., 2003; Lusk and Matus, 2000; but see Becker, 2000).

We also found differential plastic responses of both functional groups, suggesting that broadleaved species (oaks) may have a higher adaptive capacity to respond to future changing conditions than conifers (pines) in the Mediterranean areas. Conifers only showed substantial plasticity in morphological leaf traits, in contrast to results showing low responsiveness of leaf traits to changing nutrients (Aerts, 1995) and light availability (Wyka et al., 2012). Similar to our outcomes, Sanchez-Gomez et al. (2006) studying plasticity in response to light in seedlings of four Iberian forest tree species, found higher plasticity in morphological and physiological traits in two conifers (Pinus pinaster and P. sylvestris) than in two study oaks (Q. robur and Quercus pyrenaica). Nevertheless, Sanchez-Gomez et al. (2006) suggested that this plasticity was an avoidance mechanism of the shadeintolerant Pinus species rather than a persistence mechanism. In contrast, our result pointed to a carbon-acquisition strategy with larger SLA and lower LDMC in response to low light availability (Givnish, 1988; Valladares et al., 2016).

In summary, our results showed large differences between the two functional groups in the response capacity to environmental changes, mainly in the Mediterranean forest, with conifers responding at the leaf level and broadleaved species responding at the whole-plant level. These results can be interpreted as a better potential capacity of



Fig. 4. Reaction norms of morphological leaf traits and physiological traits to light and nutrient treatments for conifers and broadleaved seedlings per type of forest. Trait means ± S.E.M. per species of each functional group included in the study are shown. A significant FG × Treatment, i.e. when broadleaved and conifers differ in their plasticity to the treatment, is indicated with asterisks over the reaction norms (lines) († P < 0.10; * P <0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001). Differences in the mean trait between functional groups within treatments are indicated with asterisks over the points (*** P < 0.001). Note that the Y axis has a logarithm transformation for LA and SLA. Black circles represent broadleaved species, while empty circles represent conifers.

broadleaved against coniferous seedlings at this early stage in traits related to plant performance and fitness, which can be crucial for the species competitive ability for resources (Latham, 1992) and, therefore, for survival (Becker, 2000; Bond, 1989).

4.3. Overall trait variations in response to light and nutrient availabilities

Nutrient availability affected most of the functional traits studied, while light availability only affected leaf morphology. Seedlings in a shaded environment had leaves with greater specific leaf areas and lower leaf dry matter contents in comparison with seedlings under full exposition. These morphological variations are associated with the optimization of light interception and they have also been found in other plant life forms (Givnish, 1988; Valladares and Niinemets, 2008). A greater nutrient availability led to taller seedlings, with higher crowns and more and larger leaves with lower LDMC, and better ecophysiological conditions (higher F_v/F_m and stomatal conductance). As expected, seedlings in the nutrient-rich environment invested on new productive leaf tissues and woody stems, which improve their performance and competitive ability particularly for light capture (Poorter et al., 2012; Tilman, 1988). Surprisingly, none of the two treatments

had an effect on the relative growth rate, in contrast with other studies reporting effects of light and nutrient availabilities on mean plant growth and plasticity (Latham, 1992; Portsmuth and Niinemets, 2007; Schreeg et al., 2005).

Nevertheless, we missed part of the whole picture as we have approached the study of two environmental factors independently. The acquisition of a single resource is dependent on the availability of others, and plants allocate proportionally more resources to organs in charge of capturing the most limiting resource to achieve a 'functional equilibrium' (Iwasa and Roughgarden, 1984; Poorter et al., 2012; Thornley, 1972). Soil water availability, for instance, is another key environmental factor influencing plasticity and determining the plant phenotype (Gianoli and González-Teuber, 2005; Lázaro-Nogal et al., 2015; Molina-Montenegro et al., 2010). Particularly in Mediterranean climates, plants may exhibit higher potential plasticity in key traits related to water such as Fv/Fm and SLA since they have to cope with contrasting water variations along seasons.We did not test the effect of water availability in our study but we found that plants from the Mediterranean site presented higher variations in phenotypes than plants from the hemiboreal forest. A plausible explanation may be an advantage in plasticity of certain traits for plants from arid or semiarid

climates, which usually experiment spatial and temporal variations in numerous key environmental factors.

In this context, factorial experiments with both light and nutrient availability gradients, and also including water availability, typically shed more light on the evolutionary and ecological implications of plasticity since plants are almost always challenged by complex, multifactor environmental changes (Niinemets and Valladares, 2006; Portsmuth and Niinemets, 2007).

5. Conclusions

Recent efforts to understand the effects of diversity on plant functional traits and their plasticity aim to decipher the mechanisms underlying community assembly and the maintenance of diversity. To our knowledge, this is the first study analyzing diversity-induced plasticity in tree species. Our study showed that the species richness in the two forests did not exert any effect, i.e. it did not act as a selective filter, on either the phenotypic expression or the degree of plasticity of seedlings in response to different light and nutrient availability, at least at these early stages. Additionally, our results showed substantial differences in plasticity between functional groups, presenting broadleaf species greater plastic responses to environmental shifts than conifers. These findings on the differences between the two functional groups entail important implications regarding regeneration patterns, plant-plant interactions and species coexistence under changing environmental conditions. Specifically, broadleaf species had a higher capacity to respond to future changing conditions than conifers at this early stage. This study represents the first step to understand the effect of species diversity on phenotypic plasticity in forests, advocating the need for more studies on the footprint of species diversity on ecological and evolutionary processes.

Acknowledgments

We are very grateful to Bogdan Jaroszewicz, Ewa Chécko and Kuba for the collection of seeds from Poland site. We thank to Inés Carrascón, David López for their valuable help in collecting seeds from the Mediterranean forest, and together with Borja Ginés, Mª Carmen Bastias, José Crespo, José Ángel Peñas, Alicia Forner, Dulce Flores helping in the setting up of the common garden and during the greenhouse experiment. We also thank to Silvia Matesanz for her valuable help improving the clarity of the concepts and the manuscript in general. This work was supported by 'FunDivEUROPE' research project as part of the European Union Seventh Framework Programme (FP7 2007-2013) under grant agreement no. 265171, the Spanish-funded project REMEDINAL3eCM (S2013/MAE-2719), and also the Ecometas excellence network (CGL2014-53840-REDT). C.C.B. is beneficiary of a FPU grant funded by the Spanish Government (AP2010-5600). R.B. was funded by a Marie Curie IEF fellowship 'DIVERFOR' (FP7-PEOPLE-2011-IEF. No. 302445).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2018.08. 023.

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