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¹ Title: 'Demographic performance of European tree

² species at their hot and cold climatic edges.'

- ³ Running title: 'Demographic performance at climatic
- ₄ edges.'

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23 Abstract

Species range limits are thought to result from a decline in demographic performance at range
 edges. However, recent studies reporting contradictory patterns in species demographic perfor mance at their edges cast doubt on our ability to predict climate change demographic impacts. To

understand these inconsistent demographic responses at the edges, we need to shift the focus from
geographic to climatic edges and analyse how species responses vary with climatic constraints at
the edge and species' ecological strategy.

2. Here we parameterised integral projection models with climate and competition effects for 27 30 tree species using forest inventory data from over 90,000 plots across Europe. Our models esti-31 mate size-dependent climatic responses and evaluate their effects on two life trajectory metrics: 32 lifespan and passage time – the time to grow to a large size. Then we predicted growth, survival, 33 lifespan, and passage time at the hot and dry or cold and wet edges and compared them to their 34 values at the species climatic centre to derive indices of demographic response at the edge. Using 35 these indices, we investigated whether differences in species demographic response between hot 36 and cold edges could be explained by their position along the climate gradient and functional 37 traits related to their climate stress tolerance. 38

39 3. We found that at cold and wet edges of European tree species, growth and passage time were 40 constrained, whereas at their hot and dry edges, survival and lifespan were constrained. Demo-41 graphic constraints at the edge were stronger for species occurring in extreme conditions, i.e. in 42 hot edges of hot-distributed species and cold edges of cold-distributed species. Species leaf nitro-43 gen content was strongly linked to their demographic responses at the edge. In contrast, we found 44 only weak links with wood density, leaf size, and xylem vulnerability to embolism.

4. Synthesis. Our study presents a more complicated picture than previously thought with demographic responses that differ between hot and cold edges. Predictions of climate change impacts
should be refined to include edge and species characteristics.

⁴⁸ *Keywords*: "demography, IPM, passage time, vitale rate, climatic range edge"

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52 Introduction

In the face of climate change there are increasing concerns about the future redistribution of 53 plant species ranges (Zimmermann et al., 2013). Range shifts are thought to be directly related 54 to changes in population dynamics. The classical view of the link between population dynam-55 ics and species ranges comes from a long-standing hypothesis in biogeography known as the 56 'abundant-centre hypothesis' (hereafter ACH, Brown, 1984; Pironon et al., 2017), which proposes 57 that demographic performance decline at the range edge results in a decrease in abundance, occu-58 pancy and genetic diversity (Pironon et al., 2017). This is directly related to the hypothesis that at 59 equilibrium, a species' range edge should occur where the mean population growth rate (λ) drops 60 below one ($\lambda < 1$) due to changes in one or more vital rates (*i.e.* survival, growth, or reproduction) 61 (Case, Holt, McPeek, & Keitt, 2005; Holt & Keitt, 2005). 62

Understanding the demographic pathways of population response at range edges is crucial 63 for forecasting climate change impacts. However, existing studies comparing population growth 64 rates or vital rates in the periphery vs. the centre of species geographic range provide weak sup-65 port for the ACH (Pironon et al., 2017). Transplant experiments have shown a decline in popula-66 tion growth rate or vital rates beyond the geographic edge but not necessarily right at the edge 67 (Hargreaves, Samis, & Eckert, 2014; Lee-Yaw et al., 2016). Similarly, model-based analyses of 68 natural population monitoring data have found no clear evidence of a decrease in demographic 69 performance at the geographic edge (Csergo et al., 2017; Purves, 2009). 70

Recent reviews have highlighted the difficulties of synthesising existing results because most 71 studies explored performance of geographically peripheral populations without a clear under-72 standing of the local climatic or environmental constrains (Pironon et al., 2017; Vilà-Cabrera, Pre-73 moli, & Jump, 2019). Changes in demographic performance are, however, likely to vary depend-74 ing on the type of biophysical constraints at the edge (Gaston, 2009) and therefore, demographic 75 performance at the edge should be analysed in relation to the local main climatic contraints (the 76 "central-marginal" hypothesis in Pironon et al., 2017). Firstly, demographic constraints could dif-77 fer between drought- and cold-limited edges because tolerance to different abiotic stresses requires 78 different adaptative strategies (Niinemets & Valladares, 2006) resulting in different vital rates be-79 ing constraint at these edges (Gaston, 2009; Hargreaves et al., 2014). Secondly, it has been proposed 80

that biotic interactions (e.g. competition) could be key constraints of demographic performance at 81 the edge and that this effect would be stronger for edges in productive environments than in un-82 productive environments. However, support for this hypothesis is limited (see Hargreaves et al., 83 2014; Cahill et al., 2014; Louthan, Doak, & Angert, 2015). Thirdly, constraints on the demographic 84 performance at a climatic edge are likely to vary with species' physiological strategy (Anderegg, 85 Anderegg, Kerr, & Trugman, 2019). These physiological differences can be captured by species' 86 climatic optimum and by functional traits related to species physiological climate response, such 87 as wood (Chave et al., 2009) or leaf characteristics (Wright et al., 2017). Finally, an additional 88 difficulty arises in long-lived organisms such as trees because the response of their vital rates to 89 climatic constraints at the edge might vary depending on the size of the individual (Tredennick, 90 Teller, Adler, Hooker, & Ellner, 2018). This size-dependent response to climate can be crucial for 91 size-structured populations (De Roos, Persson, & McCauley, 2003; Tredennick et al., 2018) and can 92 affect the population performance at the edge. We thus need to analyse the performance at the 93 edge with size-structured models translating size-dependent climatic responses and the demo-94 graphic compensation effect they may occur between size or vital rates into life trajectory metrics. 95 Here, we explored these questions in European forests, which play a crucial role for mul-96 tiple ecosystem services such as sheltering a significant proportion of biodiversity and carbon 97 stocks and contributing to the livelihoods of local populations (van der Plas et al., 2018). We used 98 size-structured models fitted to forest inventory data documenting survival and growth of more 99 than one million adult trees across the continent covering Mediterranean, temperate and boreal 100 biomes. Firstly, we fitted survival and growth models for 27 species to capture size-dependent 101 climate and competition responses of these vital rates. Secondly, we built size-structured popula-102 tion models using integral projection models (IPM) (Ellner, Childs, & Rees, 2016) to evaluate how 103 size-dependent responses to climatic constraints at the edge translate into two life trajectory met-104 rics - mean lifespan and passage time (time to grow from small to large size). We then used these 105 models to compare species' predicted demographic performance at the hot and dry or cold and 106 wet climatic edges with their performance at the climatic centre. Using these metrics we tested 107 the following hypotheses: (1) vital rates and IPM-derived performance metrics are reduced at the 108 climatic edge compared to the climatic centre but the demographic metrics affected differ between 109 cold and hot edges; (2) the decline in demographic performance at the climatic edges is stronger 110

in the presence of local competition than without; and (3) demographic performance at the climatic edge depends on species' position along the climate gradient and functional traits related
to species' climate stresses tolerance (testing the effect of wood density, leaf economic spectrum
traits, leaf size, and xylem vulnerability to embolism).

Materials and Methods

In this section we present: (1) the development of climate-dependent IPMs based on growth and survival models and the data used to fit them; (2) the development of species distribution models used to select climatic edges corresponding to a species distribution limits; (3) the derivation of metrics of demographic performance at the climatic edge *vs*. the climatic center of the species distribution from the IPMs; and (4) the methodology to test our three hypotheses.

121 Forest inventory

We used the European forest inventory (NFI) data compiled in the FunDivEUROPE project (Baeten 122 et al., 2013; Ratcliffe et al., 2015). The data covers 91,528 plots and more than one million trees in 123 Spain, France, Germany, Sweden and Finland. NFIs record information on individual trees in each 124 plot, including species identity, diameter at breast height (dbh), and status (alive, dead, harvested 125 or ingrowth). Plot design varies between countries but generally plots are circular with variable 126 radii depending on tree size (see Supporting Information). The minimum dbh of trees included 127 in the dataset was 10 cm and plots were remeasured over time allowing estimations of individual 128 growth and survival. The time between two survey varied from 4 to 16 years. Only the French NFI 129 is based on a single measurement but provides a measurement of radial growth from cores (over 130 5 years) and an estimation of time since death. We selected species with > 2,000 individuals and 131 > 500 plots, to ensure a good coverage of their range, growth, and survival. We excluded exotic 132 species for which the distribution is mainly controlled by plantation operations. For the demo-133 graphic analyses, we also excluded all plots with records of harvesting operations or disturbances 134 between the two surveys, which would otherwise influence our estimation of local competition. 135

136 Climate variables

We used two bioclimatic variables known to control tree demography (Kunstler et al., 2011): (1) 137 the sum of degree days above 5.5 °C (sgdd), and (2) the water availability index (wai). sgdd is 138 the cumulative day-by-day sum of the number of degrees > 5.5 $^{\circ}$ C and is related to the mean 139 annual temperature and the length of the growing season. It was extracted from E-OBS, a high 140 resolution (1 km²) downscaled climate data-set (Moreno & Hasenauer, 2016) for the years between 141 the two surveys plus two years before the first survey. In preliminary analyses we also explored 142 the number of frost days but it was too correlated with *sgdd* to be included in the models. *wai* 143 was computed using precipitation (P, extracted from E-OBS) and potential evapotranspiration 144 (*PET*) from the Climatic Research Unit (Harris, Jones, Osborn, & Lister, 2014) data-set, as (P - P)145 *PET*)/*PET* (see Ratcliffe et al., 2017) and is related to the water availability. We also explored 146 other water stress indices but they did not improve the demographic models so we decided to use 147 wai. 148

149 Integral projection models

An IPM predicts the size distribution, n(z', t + 1), of a population at time t + 1 from its size distribution at t, n(z, t), where z the size at t and z' the size at t + 1, based on the following equation (Easterling, Ellner, & Dixon, 2000; Ellner et al., 2016):

$$n(z',t+1) = \int_{L}^{U} K(z',z)n(z,t)dz$$
(1)

The kernel K(z', z) can be split into the survival and growth kernel (P(z', z)) and the fecundity 153 kernel (F(z', z)), as follow K(z', z) = P(z', z) + F(z', z). P(z', z) is defined as P(z', z) = s(z)G(z', z)154 and represents the probability that an individual of size z survives between t and t + 1 and reaches 155 the size z'. The size of the individuals z can range between L and U. NFI data do not provide 156 direct information on tree fecundity, thus our models describe the fate of a cohort (a cohort IPM 157 for individuals with dbh ≥ 10 cm) by focusing only on P(z',z). Even without covering the full 158 life cycle, cohort IPMs are useful to estimate demographic performance because they allow to 159 predict life trajectory metrics accounting for size-dependent climate responses and compensatory 160 effect between vital rates. 161

For each of the 27 species, we fitted growth and survival functions depending on tree size, the 162 two climatic variables (sggd and wai) and local competition estimated as the sum of basal area of 163 competitors (following Kunstler et al., 2011). The shape of the climatic response curves and the 164 type of interaction between climate and tree size and climate and competition (which represents 165 a size-dependent response) can have a large impact on vital rates predictions and IPM derived 166 life trajectory metrics. To account for such uncertainties, we re-sampled 100 times 70% of the data 167 to fit the growth and survival models and select the best type of climatic response curves and 168 interactions based on the Akaike information criteria (i.e., lowest AIC) (Burnham & Anderson, 169 2002). Because there were fewer plots in extreme climatic conditions, we re-sampled the data with 170 a higher probability of sampling plots in extreme climatic conditions for the given species (see 171 details in Supporting Information). Then we used the remaining 30% of the data to evaluate the 172 goodness of fit of the growth and survival models. Goodness of fit and response curves of growth 173 and survival models are presented in the Supporting Information (Figs 4 to 13). 174

175 Growth model

After preliminary exploration, we selected two alternative shapes of the climatic response curves: asymptotic or quadratic polynomial corresponding respectively to the equation 2 and the equation 3. These equations are flexible and allow for increasing, decreasing, bell or U-shape responses. These two equations also allowed to represent two alternative biological models: (i) either all species have their optimum at high water availability and sum of degree days; or (ii) species have bell-shaped climate response curves with different optima along the climatic variables.

$$log(G_{i,p}) = a_0 + a_{0,p} + a_1 D_i + a_2 log(D_i) + a_3 BA_i + a_4 \frac{1}{sgdd_p} + a_5 \frac{1}{wai_p} + \varepsilon_i$$
(2)

$$log(G_{i,p}) = a_{0,c} + a_{0,p} + a_1 D_i + a_2 log(D_i) + a_3 BA_i + a_4 sgdd_p + a_5 sgdd_p^2 + a_6 wai_p + a_7 wai_p^2 + \varepsilon_i$$
(3)

Where $G_{i,p}$ is the annual diameter growth of tree *i* in plot *p*, D_i is the dbh of tree *i*, BA_i is 182 the sum of basal area of local competitors of tree *i* per ha (sum basal area of both conspecific and 183 heterospecific trees in the plot in a single local competition index), $sgdd_p$ is the sum of growing 184 degree days, wai_p is the water aridity index, a_0 to a_7 are estimated parameters, and $a_{0,p}$ is a normal 185 random plot effect accounting for unexplained variation at the plot level. The intercept $a_{0,c}$ is 186 country specific to account for differences in sampling protocol between the NFIs and ε_i is the 187 unexplained tree level variability following a normal distribution. We also tested models with 188 interactions between the climatic variables - $1/sgdd_p$ and $1/wai_p$ for model (2) and $sgdd_p$ and wai_p 189 for model (3)) - and size $(D_i \text{ and } log(D_i))$ and the climatic variables and competition. We fitted 190 the models in R-cran separately for each species (R Core Team, 2019) using the 'lmer' function 191 ("lme4" package, Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). 192

193 Survival model

¹⁹⁴ Survival models were fitted with a generalised linear model with a binomial error. The predictors ¹⁹⁵ and interactions explored were the same as in the growth model. To account for variable survey ¹⁹⁶ times between plots we used the complementary log-log link with an offset representing the num-¹⁹⁷ ber of years between the two surveys (y_p) (Morris, Vesk, & McCarthy, 2013). We fitted the model ¹⁹⁸ in R-cran using the 'glm' function. We did not include a random plot intercept because in most ¹⁹⁹ plots no individuals died between the surveys, making the estimation of the random plot effect ²⁰⁰ challenging.

201 Tree harvesting

Although we excluded plots with evidence of harvesting between the two surveys to fit the sur-202 vival functions, most European forests are subject to management, which has a strong impact on 203 population dynamics (Schelhaas et al., 2018). Preferential harvesting of dying or damaged trees 204 before their death probably results in an underestimation of the natural mortality rate. To make 205 sensible predictions with our IPMs it was necessary to incorporate a harvesting rate to prevent an 206 overestimation of tree lifespan. We set the individual tree harvesting rate, as the mean harvest-207 ing annual probability across all species and countries. The estimate was 0.5% per year. We did 208 not model size and climate dependence of the harvesting rate, as we focused on climatic and not 209

²¹⁰ anthropogenic constraints on tree demography.

²¹¹ Prediction of demographic metrics at the climatic edges and centre of species range

212 Species distribution

To identify the climatic edge of a species range, a simple representation of its distribution in cli-213 mate space is necessary. Across Europe, there is a strong correlation between *sgdd* and *wai*, and so 214 we described species ranges along a single climatic axis corresponding to the first axis (PC1) of the 215 PCA of *sgdd* and *wai* (Supporting Information, Fig. 3). Species showed a clear segregation along 216 this climatic axis in Europe (Fig. 1). Based on the coordinates on PC1 of the plots where the species 217 was present, we identified the median climate as their median value of PC1 (which we used as an 218 index of species position along the climate gradient), the hot and dry edge (hereafter hot edge) and 219 the cold and wet edge (hereafter cold edge), respectively, as their 5% and 95% quantiles. These 220 quantiles represent two extreme climatic conditions experienced by the species. By focusing on 221 climatically marginal populations, our approach differs from most tests of the ACH reviewed in 222 Pironon et al. (2017) that studied populations at the periphery of the species geographic range. 223

To evaluate which species' edges corresponded to an actual limit in the species distribution and not just to limits in data coverage, we fitted species distribution models with BIOMOD2 (Thuiller, Lafourcade, Engler, & Araújo, 2009) using presence/absence data covering all Europe (Mauri, Strona, & San-Miguel-Ayanz, 2017) (see Supporting Information). For comparison of the demographic performance at the edge *vs*. the centre of the distribution, we retained only the edges where the SDM predicted at least a 10% drop in the probability of presence of the species (Fig. 1).

230 Demographic metrics

To evaluate how individual tree performance varied between the species' median climate and the climatic edges, we derived four metrics representing key dimensions of population performance. The first two metrics were related to individual vital rates, and were defined by the growth and survival of 15 cm dbh individuals. We focused on small individuals because of their large effect on population dynamics (Grubb, 1977). The last two metrics were life trajectory metrics integrating the vital rates and size-dependent responses to climate in the IPM, and were defined by the mean lifespan of a 10 cm dbh individual and the passage time of a 10 cm dbh individual to 60 cm. The
details of the numerical methods used to compute lifespan and passage time from the IPM are
provided in the Supporting Information. Model diagnostics showed that our numerical approach
was not sensitive to the number of size bins retained for the IPM (*i.e.* # bins > 800, see Fig. 14 in
Supporting Information).

We predicted the four demographic metrics at the centre and the hot and cold climatic edges of 242 the species using their positions on the climatic axis. The median, and 5% and 95% quantiles on the 243 PC1 correspond to the projection of a unique combination of sggd and wai for which we predicted 244 the metrics. We integrated uncertainty into our estimates by deriving each demographic metric 245 for all 100 re-sampled growth and survival models (see above). Because competitive interactions 246 may also be important in controlling species demography at the edge of the range (Louthan et al., 247 2015), we made these predictions either without local competition (by setting BA to 0) or with a 248 high level of local competition (by setting BA to $30m^2ha^{-1}$, corresponding to a closed forest). 249

²⁵⁰ Analysis of the relative demographic performance at the climatic edges

For each demographic metric (*m*) we computed the relative difference in the metric at the edge (hot or cold) *vs.* the centre as: $\Omega_{edge}^m = (m_{edge} - m_{centre})/m_{centre}$. We integrated uncertainty by deriving estimates of Ω_{edge}^m for each of the 100 re-sampled growth and survival models. Then we used Ω_{edge}^m to evaluate our three hypotheses.

Firstly, for each metric, we tested whether species demographic performance declined at the climatic edge compared to the climate centre (hypothesis 1) by fitting a mixed model to test whether *m* was function of the range position type (edge *vs.* centre) using the function *lmer* in *lme4*. We included a random species effect to account for the non-independence of the 100 resampled estimates per species. We ran this analysis separately for hot and cold edges to see how demographic responses differed between them. Secondly, we tested whether the effects were different without or with competition (hypothesis 2).

Thirdly, we explored whether Ω^m_{edge} was dependent on species median climate and functional traits related to species' climatic response (hypothesis 3). We used Phylogenetic generalised least squares (PGLS) regression using a phylogeny extracted from Zanne et al. (2014) to account for phylogenetic dependence between species. We accounted for the uncertainty in the demographic

response by including a weight proportional to the inverse of the variance of Ω^m_{edge} (estimated over 266 the 100 re-sampled growth and survival models). The PGLS regression with maximum likelihood 267 estimation of Pagel's lambda (a measure of the phylogenetic signal ranging between 0 and 1) did 268 not always converged. In those cases we fitted a PGLS model with a Brownian model (Pagel's 269 lambda set at 1). We retained only the regressions that were both significant (after a Bonferroni 270 correction to account for multiple comparisons) and had a non-negligible magnitude of the effect 271 (Camp, Seavy, Gorresen, & Reynolds, 2008). The magnitude of the effect was considered negligible 272 when the confidence interval of the effect size intercepted the interval -0.10 and 0.10 (Camp et al., 273 2008). Effect sizes were computed as the standardised slope (Schielzeth, 2010). 274

To test the link between Ω^m_{edge} and species median climate, we ran the PGLS regression between 275 Ω^m_{edge} and the species median position on PC1. To test the links between Ω^m_{edge} and functional traits, 276 we ran the same type of PGLS regressions with four functional traits that are known to influence 277 tree response to climate. We selected the following traits: (i) wood density, because of its links 278 with drought and temperature response (Chave et al., 2009; Stahl, Reu, & Wirth, 2014); (ii) the leaf 279 economic spectrum (LES) because species at the conservative end of the spectrum are thought to 280 be more tolerant to extreme climate (Reich, 2014); (iii) leaf size, because of its links with water 281 stress and frost response (Wright et al., 2017); and (iv) xylem vulnerability to embolism measured 282 by the water potential leading to 50% loss of xylem conductivity, Ψ_{50} , because of its link with 283 drought-induced mortality (Anderegg et al., 2016). LES is based on the covariance of specific leaf 284 area, leaf lifespan, and leaf nitrogen per mass (Wright et al., 2004). We used leaf nitrogen per mass 285 (N_{mass}) , as it was the LES trait with the best coverage across our species. Trait data were sourced 286 from open databases (Chave et al., 2009; Choat et al., 2012; Maire et al., 2015; Wright et al., 2017, 287 2004). 288

289 Results

²⁹⁰ Growth and survival size-dependent responses to climate

For most species the growth and survival models showed evidence of interactions between climate and tree size and for a smaller subset of species also between climate and competition (see Tables 2 and 3 Supporting Information). This indicates that size-dependent climatic responses

were common. Model selection over the 100 re-sampled data showed that for 23 species out of 27 294 the most frequently selected growth model included interactions between climate variables and 295 tree size (see Table 2 in Supporting Information). Selection of the best survival model was more 296 variable between the 100 data re-sampling than for the growth models. For 17 species out of 27 297 the most frequently selected survival models included interactions between climatic variables and 298 tree size (see Table 3 Supporting Information). For both growth and survival several species also 299 showed evidence of interactions between climate variables and competition (respectively 12 and 300 11 species out of 27, see Tables 2 and 3 Supporting Information). 301

³⁰² Demographic responses differ between edge types and metrics

Across the 27 species, we found evidence of a significant decrease in growth and increase in pas-303 sage time (longer time needed to grow from 10 to 60 cm) at the cold edge in comparison with 304 the median climate but no effect at the hot edge (Fig. 2). In contrast, at the hot edge, we found 305 evidence of a significant decrease in both tree survival and lifespan (Fig. 2). This is consistent 306 with the hypothesis that at least one metric will decline in performance at the edge, and that dif-307 ferent metrics are affected depending on the edge type. In contrast, we found that lifespan was 308 significantly longer at the cold edge than at the median climate (Fig. 2). Generally, these patterns 309 were unaffected by local competition (Fig. 3). It is, however, important to note that the relative 310 decrease in survival at the hot edge and the increase of passage time at the cold edge became 311 non-significant at high levels of competition (Fig. 3). 312

Despite the overall demographic response at the edge, there were large variations between species. For each metric and edge type we found species showing a decrease and species showing an increase in performance (Supporting Information; Figs 16 to 19).

316 Demographic responses vary with species median climate

Growth response at the hot and cold edges was related to the median climate of the species; species associated with hot climates were more constrained at their hot edge while species associated with cold climates were more constrained at their cold edge. This result is depicted in Fig. 4 by a positive relationship between the median climate of the species and $\Omega_{hot edge}^{growth}$ and a negative relationship with $\Omega_{cold edge}^{growth}$. The same pattern is visible for passage time, but in the opposite direction,

³²² because passage time is longer when growth is slower (Fig. 4). The responses of Ω^m_{edge} for survival ³²³ and lifespan were much weaker or null. We found a negative relationship for $\Omega^{survival}_{hot \, edge}$, which was ³²⁴ largely related to a few extreme species, and no effect for lifespan (Fig. 4).

325 Weak links between demographic response and species traits

 N_{mass} had the strongest relationship with Ω_{edge}^{m} of all the traits we tested. At the hot edge, species with high N_{mass} experienced a stronger decrease in their survival and lifespan than species with a low N_{mass} (Fig. 5). In contrast, at the cold edge, species with low N_{mass} experienced a stronger decrease in their survival and lifespan than species with high N_{mass} (Fig. 5). In addition, species with high N_{mass} had less limitation of their growth at the hot edge than species with low N_{mass} (Fig. 5). In contrast, species with high N_{mass} had stronger limitation of their growth at the cold edge (Fig. 5).

Relationships between Ω^m_{edge} and wood density, leaf size and xylem vulnerability to embolism (Ψ_{50}) were generally weak (Supporting Information, Figs 21 to 23). Most of these relationships were driven by only a few species (Supplementary Information, Figs 21 22 23). Species with small leaf area had better survival and lifespan at the hot edge and better passage time at the cold edge than large leafed species (Supplementary Information, Fig. 23). Species with high Ψ_{50} experienced a stronger decrease in their growth at the hot edge than species with low Ψ_{50} (Supplementary Information, Fig. 22).

340 Discussion

Our analysis based on pan-European forest inventory data and integral projection models of 27 341 tree species, found weak support for the ACH prediction that demographic performance is lower 342 at the climatic edge than at the centre of the species range. Instead, decline in demographic per-343 formance was strikingly different between the cold and the hot edges. At cold and wet edges, 344 growth and passage time were constrained, whereas at hot and dry edges, survival and lifespan 345 were constrained. Beyond these general patterns, we found important variability between species 346 in their demographic performance at the edge, which was partially explained by species' median 347 climate and traits. 348

³⁴⁹ Different demographic responses at the hot and the cold edge

We found mixed support for the ACH; not all the demographic metrics were limited at the two edges and patterns were variable between species. This is consistent with observational studies that found limited evidence of a relationship between species demography and their distribution. For instance, both Thuiller et al. (2014) and Csergo et al. (2017) found limited correlation between plants demographic performance and probability of presence. In addition, Purves (2009) reported mixed evidence of a decrease in demographic performance at the south and north edges of North American tree species.

Growth and passage time were constrained at the cold edge in comparison with the centre of 357 the species climatic range. This is consistent with studies on North American tree species, that 358 found a decrease in growth at the cold edge in adult trees (Purves, 2009) and juveniles (Ettinger 359 & HilleRisLambers, 2017; Putnam & Reich, 2017). In contrast with the ACH, we found a tendency 360 for a slightly faster growth at the hot edge than at the centre, which has also been reported in 361 North American trees (Ettinger & HilleRisLambers, 2017; Purves, 2009; Putnam & Reich, 2017). 362 Interestingly, studies on *Fagus sylvatica* radial growth in Europe found a higher drought resistance 363 at the hot edge than at the core of the range (Cavin & Jump, 2017). 364

At the hot and dry edge, tree survival and lifespan were lower than at the centre of the climatic 365 range. The same decrease of survival at the hot edge was also found by Archambeau et al. (2020) 366 for Fagus sylvatica and Pinus sylvestris in Europe. In contrast, Purves (2009) found no such decrease 367 in survival at the hot edge of eastern North American species. This difference could be explained 368 by the fact that the hot edge of most European species corresponds to both a hot and a dry climate, 369 whereas in eastern America the hot edge is less constrained by drought (Zhu, Woodall, Ghosh, 370 Gelfand, & Clark, 2014). We found that lifespan was longer at the cold edge than at the centre of 371 the distribution, which contradicts the classical view that survival is constrained in cold climates 372 and the results of Purves (2009). Given that tree diameter growth is constrained at the cold edge, 373 this longer lifespan could be explained by a tradeoff between tree growth rate and tree longevity 374 (see Black, Colbert, & Pederson, 2008; Di Filippo et al., 2015) and the observation that survival rate 375 correlates negatively with site productivity (Stephenson et al., 2011). 376

³⁷⁷ We found strong evidence of size-dependence of growth and survival responses to climatic

constraints. Our results agree with previous studies which found that tree growth or survival 378 responses to climate varied with ontogeny (Canham & Murphy, 2017; Trouillier et al., 2019). For 379 instance, Canham & Murphy (2017) found a displacement of the climatic optimum of growth and 380 survival between seedlings, saplings, and canopy trees. These size-dependent climatic responses, 381 however, did not strongly influence the life trajectory metrics derived with IPMs as the response 382 of lifespan at the edge was closely connected to the survival of a 15 cm dbh tree and the passage 383 time was closely related to the growth of a 15 cm dbh tree. This means that these size-dependent 384 responses were either of small magnitude or led to few compensation effects between size classes. 385 Tredennick et al. (2018) also found that the size-dependence of vital rates responses to exogenous 386 environmental fluctuations had limited effect on the population growth rate of perennial plant 387 species. 388

389 Lack of competition effect

Numerous studies have proposed that competitive interactions could be crucial in setting demo-390 graphic limits, particularly when site productive is high (see Hargreaves et al., 2014; Alexander, 391 Diez, Hart, & Levine, 2016; Ettinger & HilleRisLambers, 2017; HilleRisLambers, Harsch, Ettinger, 392 Ford, & Theobald, 2013; Louthan et al., 2015). In our analyses, we explored the effect of compe-393 tition by comparing the relative demographic performance at the edge in comparison with the 394 centre (Ω) without local competition or with a high level of local competition. Despite the strong 395 direct effects of competition on both growth and survival and interactions between competition 396 and climate (see the variables importance reported in Supplementary Information, Tables 4 and 5), 397 the relative demographic responses at the edges vs. the centre (measured by Ω) were not strongly 398 influenced by the degree of local competition. Competition is thus a strong determinant of demo-399 graphic rates but its effect is not stronger at the climatic edge than at the climatic centre (rejecting 400 hypothesis 2). Rather competition blurs demographic constraints at the edge. Indeed, limitations 401 of survival at the hot edge and passage time at the cold edge were significant without competition 402 but not with a high level of competition. 403

Three main reasons could explain the lack of competition effect on the demographic response at the edges in our study. Firstly, properly estimating competition effect with observational data is notoriously difficult (Tuck, Porter, Rees, & Turnbull, 2018). Secondly, we did not differentiate ⁴⁰⁷ between intra- and inter-specific competition, whereas inter-specific competition might have the
⁴⁰⁸ strongest impact at the edge (Alexander et al., 2016). Thirdly, as our cohort IPMs do not cover
⁴⁰⁹ the full life cycle it was not possible to evaluate whether competitive exclusion - the final effect of
⁴¹⁰ competition (Chesson, 2018) - occurs at the edge.

411 Strong effect of species median climate on growth response at the edge

We found that the hotter the centre of the species range, the greater were the constraints on growth and passage time at its hot edge. The same pattern was found with the cold edge and the species median climate proximity to cold extreme. This is in agreement with the general observation that, in Europe, vegetation productivity in Europe is at its maximum in temperate climates where both drought and cold stress are limited (Jung et al., 2007).

417 Weak trait effect on species demographic response at the edge

Part of the variation in the demographic response at the edge between species was related to N_{mass} , 418 a key dimension of the leaf economic spectrum. An important difficulty in the interpretation of 419 these results is that our understanding of the link between leaf economic traits and climate is 420 limited. Multiple mechanisms, some of them contradictory, have been proposed to explain the 421 link between leaf N and climate. For instance, it is generally considered that species with low 422 N_{mass} have a more conservative strategy of resource use and perform better in stressful conditions 423 than species with high N_{mass} (Reich, 2014). In agreement with this finding, we found that species 424 with low N_{mass} had a better survival and lifespan at the hot edge. In contrast, high leaf N has 425 been linked with photosynthesis tolerance to drought and low temperatures because of higher 426 enzyme activities (Reich & Oleksyn, 2004; Wright, Reich, & Westoby, 2003). Consistent with this 427 mechanism, we found that species with high N_{mass} had a higher growth rates at the hot edge and 428 better survival and lifespan at the cold edge. 429

We found limited relationships between wood density, leaf size or xylem vulnerability to embolism and demographic responses at the climatic edge, which was surprising as the mechanisms related to climate response are better understood for these traits. Smaller leaves were related to a longer lifespan and a better survival at the hot edge and a better passage time at the cold edge. This in agreement with Wright et al. (2017) who proposed that large leaves are disadvantaged

in hot and dry climates because their transpiration rate during the day is too high and are dis-435 advantaged in cold climate because they have greater risks of reaching critical low temperatures 436 during the night. Anderegg et al. (2019) also reported weak links between traits and drought-437 related mortality at the edge, with only an effect for xylem vulnerability to embolism. The effect 438 was, however, that drought-adapted species experienced higher drought mortality at the edge 439 (Anderegg et al., 2019). In this study we found no link between xylem vulnerability to embolism 440 and survival response at the edge. In contrast a low xylem vulnerability to embolism (drought-441 adapted species) was related to better growth at the hot edge (Supplementary Information, Fig. 442 22). 443

Finally, our traits analysis might underestimate the role of traits because we ignore intraspecific traits variability. Traits phenotypic plasticity and local adaptation might however be large for species with a broad distribution (see for instance results for *Pinus sylvestris* in Reich, Oleksyn, & Tjoelker, 1996).

448 On the challenge of connecting population dynamics and species ranges

A key limitation of our analysis is that it did not include the regeneration phase, which is con-449 sidered a bottleneck in tree population dynamics and is key to cover the full life cycle to estimate 450 population growth rate (Grubb, 1977). Thus we can not conclude whether our estimates of adult 451 growth and survival are crucial drivers of the population growth rate. In the Supporting Infor-452 mation, we provide an evaluation of the relative importance of the regeneration phase for tree 453 population growth rate with an elasticity analysis of matrix population models extracted from the 454 COMPADRE Plant matrix database (Salguero-Gómez et al., 2015). The elasticity analysis showed 455 that the regeneration and adult phases were equally important (see Fig. 25 in Supporting Infor-456 mation). Our IPMs analysis thus captures an important part of a tree's life cycle for the population 457 growth rate. However, we can not rule out the possibility that the regeneration phase has a dis-458 proportional importance for the dynamics at the edge, as several studies have shown that this 459 phase is extremely sensitive to climate (Canham & Murphy, 2016; Clark, Bell, Kwit, & Zhu, 2014; 460 Defossez, Courbaud, Lasbouygues, Schiffers, & Kunstler, 2016). Integrating fecundity and juve-461 nile lifestages in tree-IPMs is challenging because we have much less data on them (Needham, 462 Merow, Chang-Yang, Caswell, & McMahon, 2018; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2020; but see Lines, Zavala, 463

⁴⁶⁴ Ruiz-Benito, & Coomes, 2019).

It is also important to keep in mind that species ranges are not necessarily only related to the 465 mean population growth rate but could also be related to other processes controlling extinction 466 risk. For instance, the temporal variability of population growth rate and the population resilience 467 to disturbances could be crucial at the edge (Holt et al., 2005) but it was not possible to evaluate 468 these processes in our study with the NFI data. Another explanation is that suitable habitats 469 where population growth rates are unaffected might exist up to the edge due to the presence of 470 suitable microsites (Cavin & Jump, 2017). In this case, the species edges arise because the fraction 471 of suitable habitats available to the metapopulation decreases (Holt & Keitt, 2000). 472

Finally, tree species distributions might not be in equilibrium with the current climate. This could be because species are either still in the process of recolonising from their ice age refugia (Svenning & Skov, 2004) or already affected by climate change. Such disequilibrium should however be visible by better performance at the cold edge (Talluto, Boulangeat, Vissault, Thuiller, & Gravel, 2017) and we found no evidence for this in our results.

478 Synthesis

Our study shows that trees' demographic responses at range edges are more complex than predicted by the ACH. Here, the patterns of demographic response of the 27 European tree species differed between their hot and cold edges. We only found strong evidence of demographic limits for edges occurring in extreme conditions (hot edges of hot-distributed species and cold edges of cold-distributed species). Our findings open an important perspective, as they show that one should not expect the same demographic response at the hot *vs.* the cold edge and that we need to refine predictions of climate change impacts as a function of the edge and species characteristics.

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505 FIGURES



Figure 1: Species distribution along the first axis of the PCA of the two climatic variables *sgdd* and *wai*. The median of the species distribution along this axis is represented by a black circle and the hot and dry edge and the cold and wet edge by red and blue circle respectively. Filled circles represent edges with a clear drop of the probability of presence as predicted by species distribution models that were selected for the analysis.



Figure 2: Differences in the demographic metrics at climatic edge *vs.* the median climate of the species distribution. The box-plots represent the relative difference of the demographic metrics between the climatic edge and the median climate computed over the 100 data resampling and the 27 species for the four demographic metrics (annual diameter growth and survival for an individual 15cm in diameter, passage time from 10cm in diameter to 60cm in diameter and lifespan of tree 15cm in diameter) and the two edge types (hot in red, cold in blue). The p value of the test for the difference in each demographic metric between the edge and the median climate is presented at the top of the box-plot (ns : non significant, * : p value < 0.05, ** : p value < 0.01, *** : p value < 0.001). The p value was computed with a mixed model with species as a random effect (see Methods for details).



Figure 3: Differences in the demographic metrics at climatic edge *vs.* the median climate of the species distribution without and with a high level of competition. The box-plots represent the relative difference the demographic metrics between the climatic edge and the median climate over the 100 data resampling and the 27 species for the four demographic metrics (annual diameter growth and survival for an individual 15cm in diameter, passage time from 10cm in diameter to 60cm in diameter and lifespan of tree 15cm in diameter), the two edge types (hot in red, cold in blue), and the two levels of competition (without competition: basal area of competitors, BA = 0, no transparency, with a high level of competition: basal area of competitors, $BA = 30m^2 ha^{-1}$ color transparency). The p value of the test for the difference in each demographic metric between the edge and the median climate is presented at the top of the box-plot (ns : non significant, * : *p*-value < 0.05, ** : *p*-value < 0.01, *** : *p*-value < 0.001). The *p*-value was computed with a mixed model with species as a random effect (see Methods for details)



Figure 4: **Changes in demographic responses at the edge in function of species median climate.** Species demographic response at the edge - measured as the relative differences of the demographic metrics at climatic edge *vs.* the median climate of the species distribution - in function of the median position of the species on the first axis of the climate PCA. For each species the mean (point) and the 95% quantiles (error bar) of the demographic response over the 100 data resampling is represented for both the hot (red) and the cold (blue) edges. Phylogenetic generalised least squares (PGLS Lambda) regressions are represented only for significant relationship with a non negligible magnitude of the effect. Gymnosperm and angiosperm species are represented with different symbols.



Figure 5: **Changes in demographic responses at the edge in function of species leaf N per mass.** Species demographic response at the edge - measured as the relative differences in the demographic metric at climatic edge *vs.* the median climate of the species distribution - as a function of species leaf nitrogen per mass. For each species the mean (point) and 95% quantiles (error bar) of the demographic response over the 100 data resampling is represented for both the hot (red) and the cold (blue) edges. Phylogenetic generalised least squares (PGLS) regressions are represented only for significant relationship with a non negligible magnitude of the effect (see details in caption of Fig. 4).

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