

1 **Simulating alternative forest management in a changing climate on a *Pinus nigra***  
2 **subsp. *laricio* plantation in Southern Italy**

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## 37 **Acknowledgements**

38 This study presented the results obtained within the ALForLab project (PON03PE\_00024\_1) co-  
39 funded by the National Operational Program for Research and Competitiveness (PON R&C) 2007–  
40 2013, through the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) and national resources (Revolving  
41 Fund - Cohesion Action Plan PAC). RT has been supported by the Italian Ministry of University and  
42 Research (FOE-2019) under the project ‘Climate Changes’ (CNR DTA. AD003.474.029) and by  
43 LifeWatch Italy through the project LifeWatchPLUS (CIR-01\_00028). DD acknowledges funding by  
44 the project OT4CLIMA which was funded by the Italian Ministry of Education, University and  
45 Research (D.D. 2261 del 6.9.2018, PON R&I 2014-2020 e FSC). The authors would like to thank G.  
46 Scarascia-Mugnozza and G. Pellicone and colleagues at ISAFOM-CNR-RENDE for providing us  
47 some of the field data used in this work. The 3D-CMCC-FEM model code is publicly available and  
48 can be found on the GitHub platform at: <https://github.com/Forest-Modelling-Lab/3D-CMCC-FEM>.  
49 All data supporting this study are publicly available at XXX. Requests for additional material should  
50 be addressed to the corresponding author.

51 **Author contributions**

52 **Riccardo Testolin:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology,  
53 Resources, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing - original draft. **Maurizio Bagnara:**  
54 Resources, Writing - review & editing. **Daniela Dalmonech:** Conceptualization, Methodology,  
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58 editing. **Alessio Collalti:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Resources,  
59 Software, Supervision, Project administration, Writing - original draft.

60

## 61 **Highlights**

- 62 1. We simulated the development of a Laricio pine stand over 137 years under three different  
63 climatic scenarios and seven management options.
- 64 2. Carbon fluxes and stocks benefit from climate change (i.e., warming and enriched  
65 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration) in the first half of the century but show a marked decrease  
66 in the longer-term.
- 67 3. Forest management exerts a much stronger effect on these features than climate change  
68 alone.
- 69 4. Silvicultural options aimed at reducing stand density preserve and enhance carbon fluxes and  
70 stocks over the simulated time period.

71

## 72 **Abstract**

73 Mediterranean pine plantations provide several ecosystem services but are particularly sensitive to  
74 climate change. Forest management practices might play a strategic role in the long-term adaptation  
75 of Mediterranean forests, but the joint effect of climate change and alternative management options  
76 in the near and far future have seldom been investigated together. Here, we developed a portfolio of  
77 management options and simulated the development of a Laricio pine (*Pinus nigra* subsp. *laricio*)  
78 stand in the Bonis watershed (southern Italy) from its establishment in 1958 up to 2095 using a state-  
79 of-the-science process-based forest model. The model was run under three climate change scenarios  
80 corresponding to increasing levels of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and seven management options  
81 with different goals, including post-disturbance management, wood production and renaturalization  
82 purposes. We analyzed the effect of climate change on annual carbon fluxes (i.e., gross and net  
83 primary production) and stocks (i.e., basal area and potential carbon woody stocks), as well as the  
84 impact of different management options compared to no management. Results show that, while  
85 climate change (i.e., warming and enriched atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration) seems to increase carbon  
86 fluxes and stocks in the first half of the century, both show a substantial decrease in the second half,  
87 along with higher temperatures (+3 to +5 °C) and lower precipitation (−20% to −22%). When  
88 compared to no management, alternative options had a moderate effect on carbon fluxes over the  
89 whole simulation (between −6% and +7%) but overall carbon stocks were maximized by thinning  
90 interventions and the shelterwood system (+54% to +55%). We demonstrate that the choice of  
91 management exerts greater effects on the features of Laricio pine plantations than climate change  
92 alone. Therefore, silvicultural strategies might enhance potential stocks and improve forest  
93 conditions, with cascading positive effects on the provision of ecosystem services in Mediterranean  
94 pine plantations.

95

96 **Keywords**

97 Mediterranean forests; Climate change; Management; Process-based model; 3D-CMCC-FEM;

98 Carbon balance; Laricio pine

99

## 100 **Introduction**

101 Temperate forests play an important role in the Earth system Carbon (C) cycle by absorbing and  
102 storing a considerable amount of C in their aboveground and belowground compartments (Keith et  
103 al., 2009). Among these environments, Mediterranean forests account for 30% of the European forest  
104 cover and represent a net C-sink (FAO, 2018; Morán-Ordóñez et al., 2021). The Mediterranean basin  
105 is also a global biodiversity hotspot (Myers et al., 2000; Noce et al., 2016), with its forests harboring  
106 three times the number of tree species as the rest of Europe in a fourfold smaller area (Fady-Welterlen,  
107 2005). These ecosystems play a key role in the livelihoods of local communities by providing food,  
108 timber, clean water, protection against soil erosion and micro-climatic regulation (Mazza et al., 2018;  
109 Morán-Ordóñez et al., 2021, 2020). At the same time, the Mediterranean basin is one of the main  
110 climate change hotspots on the planet (Diffenbaugh and Giorgi, 2012; Noce et al., 2017; Tuel and  
111 Eltahir, 2020). Indeed, the area is warming up 20% faster than the global average, precipitations are  
112 projected to decrease up to 20%, and extreme climatic events (e.g., heatwaves and droughts) are likely  
113 to increase both in frequency and intensity (D'Andrea et al., 2020; Lionello and Scarascia, 2018;  
114 Santini et al., 2014). These changing conditions could potentially reduce forest growth and prompt  
115 changes in forest dynamics (i.e., mortality and extensive dieback episodes) that, together with other  
116 disturbances, might limit the productivity and C-uptake capacity of Mediterranean forests (Gentilesca  
117 et al., 2017; Klein et al., 2019; Matteucci et al., 2013; Resco De Dios et al., 2007). By the end of this  
118 century, the cumulative effect of climate and land use change in the Mediterranean basin could trigger  
119 the transition from a positive (sink) to a negative (source) C-balance in the area, with inevitable and  
120 profound consequences on the persistence and dynamics of these ecosystems (Morales et al., 2007;  
121 Nolè et al., 2013; Pausas and Millán, 2019).

122 In this context, there is a high expectation towards the sustainable management of Mediterranean  
123 forests to counterbalance possible climate-change induced C-losses by preserving their sink and stock  
124 capability (Jandl et al., 2019; Reyer et al., 2015; Ruiz-Peinado et al., 2017; Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2018).  
125 Indeed, sustainable forest management practices can lower greenhouse gas emissions and contribute

126 to climate change adaptation, while providing long-term livelihoods for communities by maintaining  
127 and enhancing ecosystem services (IPCC, 2019). This is especially critical for Mediterranean forests,  
128 as they have already undergone several millennia of human influence which resulted in the prevalence  
129 of mixed forest stands and conifer plantations (Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012). Among the latter, pine  
130 plantations were mainly established during the 20<sup>th</sup> century to restore overexploited land, foster soil  
131 protection, and increase the production of existing forest stands, resulting in multiple forest restoration  
132 projects on a vast scale (Maestre and Cortina, 2004; Pausas et al., 2004). Despite the typical fast  
133 growing performances, Mediterranean pine plantations are particularly sensitive to the adverse effect  
134 of climate change and related disturbances (e.g., wildfires, drought, insect outbreaks; González-  
135 Sanchis et al., 2015; Martin-Benito et al., 2011; Navarro-Cerrillo et al., 2019; Resco De Dios et al.,  
136 2007; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012), which might be further exacerbated by the lack of silvicultural  
137 treatments. This is particularly relevant in those mountainous areas characterized by limited  
138 accessibility and overall low economic revenue due to the high forest operation costs (Lerma-Arce et  
139 al., 2021; Proto et al., 2020). Therefore, management interventions in Mediterranean pine plantations  
140 aimed at promoting the progressive evolution of these stands towards more diverse and species-rich  
141 forests should be considered in order to ensure the future provision of ecosystem services in a  
142 changing climate (Nocentini et al., 2022).

143 Management strategies for climate change adaptation in Mediterranean forests are mainly translated  
144 into different thinning schemes – both in terms of intervention frequency and removal intensities –  
145 and ultimately through adjusted rotation periods (Resco De Dios et al., 2007). These adaptation  
146 measures (i) modulate C-stocks and C-uptake capacity, (ii) increase drought-stress resistance by  
147 reducing competition for water, and (iii) reduce losses of C use efficiency (net vs. gross primary  
148 production) by contrasting the aging of Mediterranean forests in the short-term, compared to the  
149 absence of management (del Río et al., 2017; González-Sanchis et al., 2015; Navarro-Cerrillo et al.,  
150 2019; Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2018). Despite the potential benefits of silvicultural practices aimed at  
151 enhancing the resilience of Mediterranean forests to future climate change impacts, the effects of

152 management on the long-term forest adaptation are seldom investigated (Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2018),  
153 with the exception of few studies in high productivity regions (Manrique-Alba et al., 2020).

154 Process-based forest models provide a unique experimental framework to track the future responses  
155 of forest ecosystems to alternative management strategies under a changing climate (Gupta and  
156 Sharma, 2019; Keenan et al., 2011; Maréchaux et al., 2021; Reyer et al., 2015; Ruiz-Benito et al.,  
157 2020). Such models incorporate both empirical and mechanistic relations of the main  
158 ecophysiological processes which drive the response of forest stand development over decadal time  
159 periods (Gupta and Sharma, 2019; Keenan et al., 2011; Mäkelä et al., 2000) and can therefore help  
160 quantify the impacts of climate change and management on forest fluxes and stocks under changing  
161 environmental conditions. In an integrated scenario-analysis framework, process-based forest models  
162 can inform both the scientific and policy-oriented community of the forestry sector, thus supporting  
163 adaptation strategies in the Mediterranean basin (Keenan et al., 2011; Morán-Ordóñez et al., 2020;  
164 Vilà-Cabrera et al., 2018).

165 By means of a state-of-the-science process-based forest model (3D-CMCC-FEM; Three Dimensional  
166 - Coupled Model Carbon Cycle - Forest Ecosystem Model), we simulated the development of a  
167 Laricio pine stand in the Bonis experimental watershed (southern Italy) with the aim of providing  
168 insights on future adaptive management strategies of a Mediterranean pine plantation. We designed a  
169 wide portfolio of silvicultural strategies based on different forest management schemes which are  
170 currently applied in the study area and tested their effects on forest development under different  
171 climate change scenarios. Specifically, we aimed to 1) assess the impact of climate change alone on  
172 the forest C-budget including its annual productivity and stock capacity and, 2) evaluate the extent to  
173 which different silvicultural practices will affect C-balance up to the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century in one of  
174 the southernmost European forest sites.

175

## 176 **Materials and methods**

### 177 **Study area and stand data collection**

178 The Bonis experimental watershed is located in the mountain area of Sila Greca (39°28'49'' N,  
179 16°32'07'' E; from 975 to 1330 m. a.s.l.) in the Calabria region, southern Italy, and represents one of  
180 the southernmost long-term experimental research sites in Europe. The catchment has a surface of  
181 1.39 km<sup>2</sup>, a mean elevation of 1131 m a.s.l. and was firstly instrumented for hydrological monitoring  
182 in 1986. Almost 93% of the total area is covered by forests, dominated by ~60 years old Laricio pine  
183 stands, whose origin is mainly artificial (Callegari et al., 2003; Caloiero et al., 2017). The stands were  
184 planted in 1958 with an average density of 2425 saplings ha<sup>-1</sup> (Nicolaci et al., 2015) and underwent a  
185 thinning treatment in 1993 which removed 25% of the basal area (BA) (Callegari et al., 2003). The  
186 climate is typically Mediterranean, with average annual precipitation of 915 mm and average  
187 temperature of 8.9 °C. The geological substrate is mainly composed of acid plutonic rocks and  
188 gravelly sands (Callegari et al., 2003). As part of the Euroflux-Carboitaly network, a tower for the  
189 measurement of eddy fluxes was installed in 2003 in a Laricio pine plantation within the study area  
190 (39°28'40'' N, 16°32'05'' E; Marino et al., 2005) and operated between 2005 and 2009. Furthermore,  
191 14 circular 12 m-radius plots were established in 1993 before the thinning interventions and were  
192 resurveyed in 1999 and 2016. In each plot, for all trees with diameter at breast height (DBH; 1.3 m)  
193 > 2.5 cm, total height, crown insertion height and vitality were recorded (Collalti et al., 2017). The  
194 plot data have been used to parameterize and, together with the eddy fluxes data, to validate the model.

### 195 **Vegetation model and species parameterization**

196 The 3D-CMCC-FEM forest model (v.5.6 BGC) is a biogeochemical, biophysical, and physiological  
197 process-based forest model developed to predict C, energy, and water fluxes coupled with stand  
198 development processes that determine relative stock changes in forest ecosystems (Collalti et al.,  
199 2019; Dalmonech et al., 2022). The model is designed to simulate the main physiological and  
200 hydrological processes at daily, monthly, and annual scales and at the species-specific level. The  
201 model requires data on initial forest stand conditions, including species composition, average tree

202 DBH, height, stand age and tree density (number of trees per hectare). Both structural and non-  
203 structural tree C-pools are initialized at the beginning of the simulation and updated daily, monthly,  
204 or annually, depending on the processes. Furthermore, the model allows the simulation of different  
205 management scenarios by defining the intensity and the interval of removals, as well as the length of  
206 rotation periods and artificial replanting schemes, which can be varied through the simulation time.  
207 For a full description of key model principles and theoretical framework see also Collalti et al. (2020,  
208 2019, 2018, 2016, 2014), Dalmonech et al. (2022), Engel et al. (2021), and Marconi et al. (2017).

209 The model was parameterized to simulate the development of a Laricio pine stand based on published  
210 literature (Lapa et al., 2017; Lebourgeois et al., 1998; Patenaude et al., 2008). When published  
211 information on the species was unavailable for a given ecophysiological parameter, we used the values  
212 reported for ecologically-close species following this order: other subspecies of *Pinus nigra*  
213 (Grossoni, 2014; Margolis et al., 1995; Mórnicz et al., 2018; Navarro-Cerrillo et al., 2016; Van  
214 Haverbeke, 1990), *Pinus pinaster* (Chiesi et al., 2007; Delzon et al., 2004; Mollicone et al., 2002),  
215 *Pinus sylvestris* (Collalti et al., 2019; Yuste et al., 2005) or, more generally and in few cases, other  
216 evergreen species (Arora and Boer, 2005; Dewar et al., 1994; Poulter et al., 2010). All parameter  
217 values and sources are reported in Supplementary Information Table S1.

## 218 **Climate and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> data**

219 The 3D-CMCC-FEM requires as climatic inputs daily values of solar radiation ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2}$ ), temperature  
220 ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), precipitation (mm) and vapor pressure deficit (hPa). Such data, from 1958 to 2016, were derived  
221 for the Bonis watershed using the mountain microclimate simulation model MT-CLIM (Thornton and  
222 Running, 1999) forced by temperature and precipitation series measured by the nearby Cecita  
223 meteorological station (39°23'51'' N, 16°33'24'' E; 1180 m a.s.l.). This dataset was used to perform  
224 historical simulations for model validation.

225 To simulate the development of the Laricio pine stand up to the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, we employed  
226 a set of climate data covering the 1976 - 2095 period at 0.0715° spatial resolution (~8 km)  
227 (Bucchignani et al., 2016; Zollo et al., 2016). This highly resolved climate data are based on the

228 regional climate model COSMO-CLM (Rockel et al., 2008) driven by the CMCC-CM global model  
229 (Scoccimarro et al., 2011) using the 20C3M forcing (i.e., observed emissions) for the period 1976 -  
230 2005, and two IPCC emission scenarios from 2006 onwards: the intermediate emission scenario  
231 RCP4.5 and the high emission scenario RCP8.5 (Moss et al., 2010; van Vuuren et al., 2011). The  
232 RCP4.5 scenario assumes that the total radiative forcing is stabilized, shortly after 2100, to  $4.5 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$   
233  $^2$  (approximately 650 ppmv  $\text{CO}_2$ -equivalent) by employing various technologies and strategies to  
234 reduce greenhouse gas emissions. The RCP8.5 is characterized by increasing emissions and high  
235 greenhouse gas concentration levels, leading to  $8.5 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  in 2100 (approximately 1370 ppmv  $\text{CO}_2$ -  
236 equivalent). Modeled temperature and precipitation data were bias corrected following the approach  
237 adopted and described in Sperna Weiland et al. (2010), starting from the observed series of the same  
238 variables. As an observational dataset for the bias correction the downscaled daily E-OBS dataset (v  
239 10.0) at 1 km resolution (Maselli et al., 2012) was used. Additionally, we simulated a no climate  
240 change (NOCC) dataset as a benchmark scenario for the period 2006 - 2095 by randomly sampling  
241 each day in sequence from the bias-corrected COSMO-CLM dataset between 1990 and 2005. As the  
242 COSMO-CLM data were only available starting from 1976, we used the MT-CLIM climatic dataset  
243 described above for the 1958 - 1975 period.

244 Measured values of global annual atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration (ppmv) were derived from  
245 Meinshausen et al. (2011), while values consistent to the abovementioned emission scenarios were  
246 provided by Dlugokencky and Tans (2014). The atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations for the NOCC  
247 scenario were simulated by randomly sampling each year in sequence between 1990 and 2005 from  
248 Meinshausen et al. (2011).

249 To assess the departure of projected climate change from the baseline NOCC scenario, we calculated  
250 the mean relative change in temperature, precipitation, vapor pressure deficit and atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$   
251 concentration for the two RCP scenarios within two different time windows: near future (NF; 2025 -  
252 2055) and far future (FF; 2065 - 2095). 95% confidence intervals were estimated as  $\pm 1.96$  times the

253 standard error. Disjoint confidence intervals were considered as a conservative indication of  
254 statistically significant differences among scenarios.

## 255 **Model evaluation**

256 Model performances were evaluated by simulating the development of a representative Laricio pine  
257 stand in the Bonis watershed from its establishment in 1958 to the last field measurements occurred  
258 in 2016, which includes the thinning in 1993. The model was initialized in 1958 with an initial density  
259 of 2425 saplings per hectare (DBH: 1 cm, height: 1.3 m, age: 4 years; Nicolaci et al., 2015),  
260 considering the average elevation of the watershed (1131 m.a.s.l.), the average soil texture (clay: 20%;  
261 silt: 26%; sand: 54%) and depth (100 cm) (Buttafuoco et al., 2005; Moresi et al., 2020). The evaluation  
262 was carried out by comparing the resulting simulated mean annual DBH and tree density to the values  
263 measured at the field plots in 1993 (before thinning), 1999 and 2016, as well as to the estimations  
264 provided by Callegari et al. (2003) for low and high density Laricio pine plantations in the Bonis  
265 watershed for 1986, 1993 (before and after thinning) and 1999. Additionally, a micrometeorological  
266 validation of daily gross primary productivity (GPP) was carried out by comparing the simulated  
267 values to those obtained by the eddy covariance tower. Only the measurements up to 2008 were  
268 considered, as the 2009 dataset presented major gaps in the daily time series. Among the selected  
269 data, we excluded all days with a quality control flag lower than 0.6 which were then removed from  
270 the simulation settings as described in Collalti et al. (2018). The comparisons were carried out for  
271 each year, as well as for the daily averages of the two years, by calculating root mean squared error  
272 (RMSE), coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) and modeling efficiency (ME). The latter index provides  
273 information about modeling performance on a relative scale: ME = 1 indicates a perfect fit, ME = 0  
274 reveals that the model is no better than a simple average, while negative values indicate poor  
275 performance (Bagnara et al., 2015; Vanclay and Skovsgaard, 1997).

## 276 **Forest management scenarios**

277 For each of the three climate scenarios (i.e., NOCC, RCP4.5, RCP8.5) we simulated forest  
278 management by mimicking seven different silvicultural options reflecting different goals (Table 1),  
279 resulting in a total of 21 different model runs. All the options were simulated to take place after 2016,  
280 i.e., the last year of field measurements. The scenarios cover several management objectives including  
281 post-disturbance management, wood production and renaturalization and reflect the state-of-the-  
282 science of management options applied to this region of the Italian Apennines (Cantiani et al., 2018).  
283 The first option (*'no management'*) represents the natural development of the forest left without  
284 human intervention, while the second option (*'natural regeneration'*) reproduces natural forest  
285 regeneration following a major disturbance event (e.g., wildfire), simulated as a clear-cut after 80  
286 years from planting (i.e., around the time when atmospheric aridity start increasing while the fuel load  
287 is still high). The regeneration is simulated as a prescribed replanting, with density of saplings derived  
288 from the estimated tree density of natural Laricio pine stands in 1986 (Callegari et al., 2003) by going  
289 backwards to 1958 assuming a 1% annual mortality rate (Andrus et al., 2021). Two options simulating  
290 different thinning intensities – *'light'* and *'heavy'*, corresponding to a 28% and 35.5% reduction of  
291 BA, respectively – at an interval of 15 years are proposed in order to reproduce silvicultural  
292 interventions aimed at favoring natural forest dynamics. Indeed, at intermediate stages of stand  
293 development, pine forests can benefit from thinnings aimed specifically at improving their degree of  
294 stability (Cantiani et al., 2005; Cantiani and Piovisi, 2008). Selective thinnings induce an increase in  
295 mechanical stability, favor structural diversity, and reduce inter-tree competition for water, light, and  
296 nutrients (del Río et al., 2017; Marchi et al., 2018). However, tending and thinning interventions still  
297 represent a major passive management item in terms of costs and are often avoided in public forests  
298 resulting in a progressive degeneration of stand structure (Ahtikoski et al., 2021; Niskanen and  
299 Väyrynen, 2001). An additional, production-oriented option (*'patch clearcut'*) simulating a complete  
300 harvest followed by replanting 80 years after the establishment of the plantation is also included. Yet,  
301 the shelterwood system represents a more sustainable alternative to clear-cutting and patch cuttings

302 by ensuring a progressive and constant light availability to the forest floor. The practice favors  
 303 regeneration while modulating the competition for light and water resources with herbs and shrubs  
 304 (not considered here), and allows higher revenues (Brichta et al., 2020; Cantiani et al., 2018; Montoro  
 305 Girona et al., 2018). Therefore, we simulated two shelterwood options: ‘*shelterwood A*’, consisting  
 306 of two light thinnings (20% reduction of BA) with a 10 year interval, followed by an establishment  
 307 cut after 80 years from the original planting (80% reduction of BA) and a removal cut 10 year later;  
 308 ‘*shelterwood B*’, defined by a delayed establishment cut after 90 years, preceded by three heavier  
 309 thinnings (28.5% reduction of BA) and followed by a removal cut after 10 years. In both cases, the  
 310 establishment cut is followed by natural regeneration of the same species.

311

312 **Table 1.** Summary of simulated management options. Abbreviations: r = rotation period; thBA =  
 313 basal area removed with thinning; thINT = time interval between thinnings.

Option	Detail	Objective	r	thBA	thINT	replanting	Description
			year	%	year	n saplings ha <sup>-1</sup>	
<b>No management</b>	No interventions	-	-	-	-	-	This option simulates only the documented thinning in 1993 (25% of BA).
<b>Natural regeneration</b>	Clearcut + natural regeneration	Post disturbance (wildfire)	80	-	-	5013	Clear-cut after 80 years from plantation establishment (year: 2038). After that, natural regeneration follows.
<b>Light thinning</b>	Multiple thinning interventions	Biodiversity / Renaturalization	-	28	15	-	4 light thinnings (years: 2017, 2032, 2047, 2062).
<b>Heavy thinning</b>	Multiple thinning interventions	Biodiversity / Renaturalization	-	35.5	15	-	4 heavy thinnings (years: 2017, 2032, 2047, 2062).
<b>Patch clearcut</b>	Clearcut + artificial regeneration (replanting)	Production / Commercial forest	80	-	-	2425	Complete harvest after 80 years from plantation establishment (year: 2038). After that, the same number of trees as in 1958 is replanted.
<b>Shelterwood A</b>	Thinnings	Production / Commercial forest	-	20	10	-	2 light thinnings (years: 2017, 2027), 1 heavy thinning (establishment cut) in 2038 followed by natural regeneration, harvest (removal cut) in 2048.
	Establishment cut		80	80	-	5013	
	Removal cut		90	100	-	-	
<b>Shelterwood B</b>	Thinnings	Production / Commercial forest	-	28.5	10	-	3 light thinnings (years: 2017, 2027, 2037), 1 heavy thinning (establishment cut) in 2048 followed by natural regeneration, harvest (removal cut) in 2058.
	Establishment cut		90	80	-	5013	
	Removal cut		100	100	-	-	

314

## 315 **Analysis of simulation outputs**

316 To assess the impacts of climate change and management on stand structure and function, we  
317 evaluated the temporal trends of GPP, net primary productivity (NPP), potential C-woody stocks  
318 (pCWS; i.e., the sum of standing woody biomass and harvested woody products when no decay is  
319 assumed) and BA. We chose these variables among all model outputs as they are key components of  
320 the forest C-budget and forest structure, representing the physiologically and structurally inherent  
321 capacity of trees to sequester and stock atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on the short- (i.e., GPP and NPP) to long-  
322 term (i.e., pCWS and BA). At the same time, these outputs are key variables relevant to decision  
323 makers to assess stand growth changes and current standing biomass, as well as to make appropriate  
324 management decisions. Notably, we considered pCWS as representative of the maximum attainable  
325 C-stock capacity to quantify the inherent capability of trees to sequester and store C over medium- to  
326 long-time periods. Only in the ‘*natural regeneration*’ option, we assumed the destruction of the stocks  
327 following a forest fire.

328 We analyzed the overall effect of climate change by calculating the mean relative change of the  
329 abovementioned outputs between the RCP and the NOCC scenarios within the NF and FF time  
330 windows. The results were then averaged across all seven management options. Similarly, to assess  
331 the effect of management, we calculated the mean values of the target outputs for each option, as well  
332 as the relative change between each management option and no management, here considered as the  
333 baseline, averaging the outputs of the three climate scenarios. Apart from the NF and FF time  
334 windows, these results were also provided for the whole simulation starting from 2006 (i.e., the  
335 starting year of the climatic scenarios; ALL time window). To visualize the whole time series, we  
336 performed a *loess* fit of the simulated outputs for each management option with a span of 0.5 to reduce  
337 noise from interannual variability. Climate scenarios were considered jointly, thus representing the  
338 interval of values between the absence of climate change and the worst case scenario. 95% confidence  
339 intervals of each mean relative change were estimated and used to identify significant differences as  
340 described above. All data visualization and analyses were performed with R (R Core Team, 2021).

## 341 **Results**

### 342 **Model evaluation**

343 The simulated mean stand DBH of Laricio pine plantations in the Bonis watershed was 18.1 cm in  
344 1986, 20.5 cm in 1993 before the thinning, 21 cm in 1993 after the thinning, and 24.3 cm in 1999. In  
345 the same years, Callegari et al. (2003) reported a mean stand DBH range of 18 - 20.2 cm, 19.8 - 21.8  
346 cm, 20.8 - 22.8 cm and 23.8 - 27.4 cm, respectively, for high and low density plantations. At the forest  
347 plots, a mean stand DBH of  $22.2 \pm 2.4$  cm was estimated in 1993 before the thinning, which increased  
348 to  $25.9 \pm 3.7$  cm in 1999 and to  $33.7 \pm 3.3$  cm in 2016. The simulated value for in 2016, was 33.6 cm  
349 (Table 2; Figure 1a). As for tree density, the model simulated 1620 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 1986, 1276 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>  
350 in 1993 before the thinning, 948 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 1993 after the thinning, 894 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 1999 and 474  
351 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 2016. The values measured at the forest plots were  $1491 \pm 382$  trees ha<sup>-1</sup>,  $975 \pm 376$  trees  
352 ha<sup>-1</sup> and  $522 \pm 231$  trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 1993 before the thinning, 1999 and 2016, respectively. Similarly,  
353 Callegari et al. (2003) reported a range of 1250 - 2200 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>, 1162 - 1701 trees ha<sup>-1</sup>, 800 - 1150  
354 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> and 775 - 1102 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> in 1986, 1993 before thinning, 1993 after thinning and 1999,  
355 respectively (Table 2; Figure 1b).

356 Goodness-of-fit metrics of the four-year average trend of simulated daily GPP against values derived  
357 by the eddy covariance tower were RMSE = 1.38 gC m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, R<sup>2</sup> = 0.69 and ME = 0.6 (Figure 1c,d).  
358 As for the daily GPP of each year, the model reproduced the annual trends, albeit with different  
359 accuracy (Figure S1).

360

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362

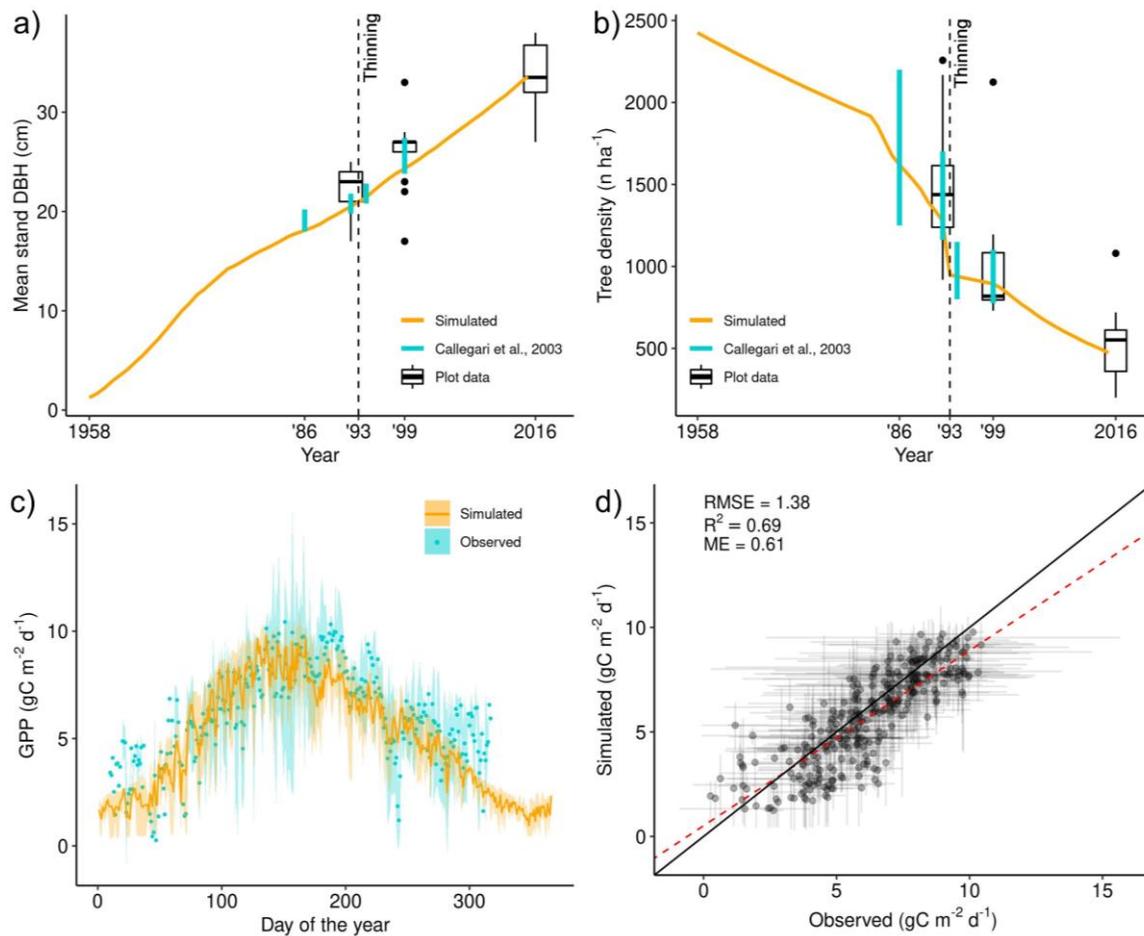
363

364

365 **Table 2.** Simulated values of mean stand DBH and tree density (in bold) against those reported by  
 366 Callegari et al. 2003 (range between low and high density plantations) and measured at the sampling  
 367 plots (mean and standard deviation). The reported simulated values for 1993 (before thinning) and  
 368 1993 (after thinning) are for the years 1992 and 1993, respectively.

	<b>1986</b>	<b>1993 (before thinning)</b>	<b>1993 (after thinning)</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2016</b>
<i>Mean stand DBH (cm)</i>					
<b>Simulated</b>	<b>18.1</b>	<b>20.5</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>24.3</b>	<b>33.6</b>
<b>Callegari et al. 2003</b>	18 - 20.2	19.8 - 21.8	20.8 - 22.8	23.8 - 27.4	-
<b>Plot data</b>	-	22.2 ± 2.4	-	25.9 ± 3.7	33.7 ± 3.3
<i>Tree density (n trees ha<sup>-1</sup>)</i>					
<b>Simulated</b>	<b>1620</b>	<b>1276</b>	<b>948</b>	<b>894</b>	<b>474</b>
<b>Callegari et al. 2003</b>	1250 - 2200	1162 - 1701	800 - 1150	775 - 1102	-
<b>Plot data</b>	-	1491 ± 382	-	975 ± 376	522 ± 231

369



370

371 **Figure 1.** Evaluation of (a) simulated mean stand DBH and (b) tree density against the values reported  
 372 by Callegari et al. (2003) and measured within the sampling plots. Evaluation of the average simulated  
 373 daily GPP against the values obtained by the eddy covariance tower at the Bonis watershed in the  
 374 years 2005 - 2009 (c, d). The solid line represents the mean simulated value. The points represent the  
 375 mean values derived by eddy covariance measurements. Shaded areas (c) and error bars (d) are the  
 376 interval between the minimum and maximum values for a given day.

377

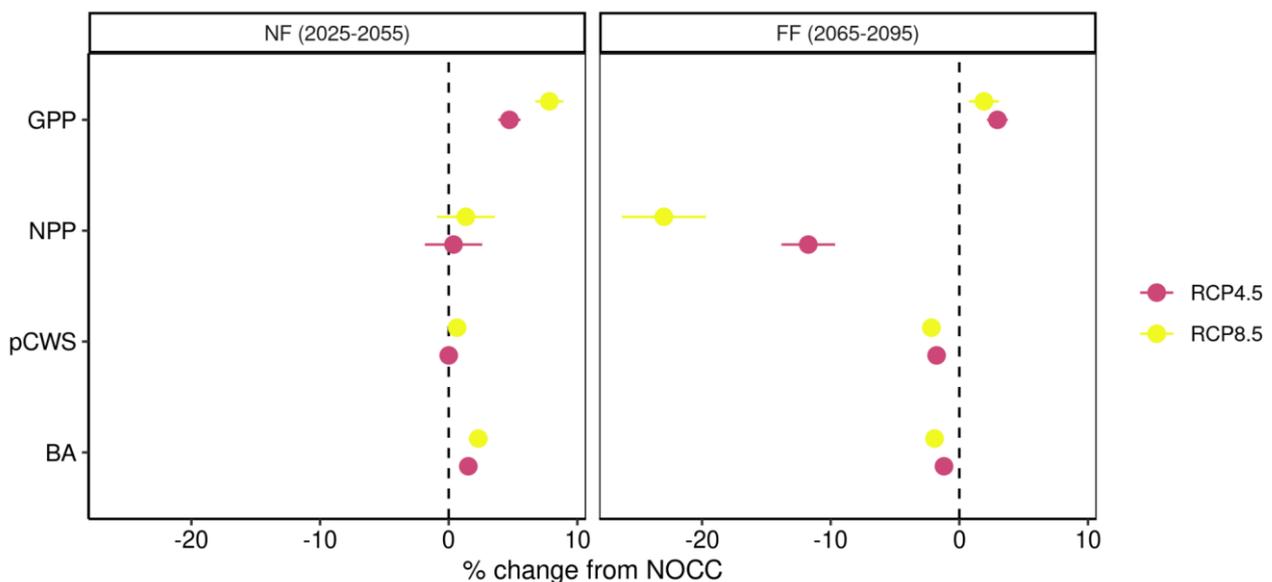
### 378 Climate change scenarios

379 On average, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increased to 461 - 494 ppmv in NF and to 530 - 761  
 380 ppmv in FF, according to the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, respectively. At the same time, mean  
 381 temperatures at the Bonis watershed under the RCP4.5 scenario are projected to increase by 1.2 °C  
 382 (9%) in NF and 3 °C (23%) in FF, compared to NOCC. According to the RCP8.5 scenario, the increase  
 383 will be by 1.8 °C (14%) and 5 °C (39%). Vapor pressure deficit will also increase by 13% in NF and

384 31% in FF under the RCP4.5 scenario compared to NOCC, while the increase will be by 18% and  
385 59% under the RCP8.5 scenario. No significant change in precipitation is predicted in NF for both  
386 scenarios, while a reduction of 20% and 22% is predicted in FF, respectively for the RCP4.5 and  
387 RCP8.5 scenarios, compared to NOCC (Table S2; Figure S2).

388 According to the RCP4.5 scenario, GPP will increase by 4.7% in NF and by 3% in FF, compared to  
389 NOCC. The increase according to the RCP8.5 scenario will be 7.8% in NF and 1.9% in FF. pCWS  
390 will not change in NF and will decrease by 1.8% in FF under RCP4.5, while it will slightly increase  
391 in NF (0.7%) and decrease in FF (-2.2%) under RCP8.5, compared to NOCC. BA will increase under  
392 both scenarios in NF (1.5% for RCP4.5 and 2.3% for RCP8.5) and decrease in FF (-1.2% for RCP4.5  
393 and -1.9% for RCP8.5). No significant differences in NPP were detected for NF while a 11.7%  
394 reduction will take place in FF under the RCP4.5 scenario, and an even stronger 23% decrease is  
395 projected under the RCP8.5 scenario (Figure 2; Table S3).

396



397

398 **Figure 2.** Relative change of simulation outputs between RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 climatic scenarios  
399 compared to the baseline NOCC scenario within the NF and FF time windows. The percentages were  
400 averaged across all seven management options. The error bars are the 95% confidence intervals.

## 401 **Forest management scenarios**

402 Within the NF time window, the simulation under the ‘*no management*’ option exhibited the highest  
403 mean values for GPP ( $1636 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ), NPP ( $559 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ) and BA ( $42 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ), while the ‘*patch*  
404 ‘*clearcut*’ scenario showed the lowest values of the same variables (GPP:  $1221 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ; NPP:  $453$   
405  $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ; BA:  $24 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ). As for pCWS, the highest mean values were exhibited by the  
406 ‘*shelterwood B*’ option ( $168 \text{ tC ha}^{-1}$ ), while the lowest were found in the ‘*natural regeneration*’ option  
407 ( $64 \text{ tC ha}^{-1}$ ). The ‘*shelterwood A*’, ‘*shelterwood B*’, ‘*patch clearcut*’ and ‘*natural regeneration*’  
408 options exhibited a similar decrease in GPP (between  $-17\%$  and  $-25\%$ ) and BA (between  $-30\%$  and  
409  $-41\%$ ) compared to ‘*no management*’, while the ‘*light*’ and ‘*heavy thinning*’ options presented a  
410 similarly lower decrease ( $-4\%$  and  $-7\%$  for GPP;  $-11\%$  and  $-16\%$  for BA, respectively). As for NPP,  
411 ‘*light*’ and ‘*heavy thinning*’ showed a decrease of  $2\%$  and  $3\%$ , while ‘*natural regeneration*’ and ‘*patch*  
412 ‘*clearcut*’ presented the greatest decrease ( $-14\%$  and  $-18\%$ ); ‘*shelterwood A*’ and ‘*shelterwood B*’  
413 exhibited intermediate values at  $-6\%$  and  $-9\%$  of NPP compared to ‘*no management*’ option.  
414 Increases in pCWS were between  $37\%$  and  $46\%$  for thinning and shelterwood options, while the  
415 ‘*patch clearcut*’ option exhibited a  $4\%$  increase compared to ‘*no management*’. The ‘*natural*  
416 ‘*regeneration*’ option showed a  $42\%$  decrease (Table 3; Figure 3 and 4; Figure S3).

417 As for the FF time window, mean GPP was the highest under the ‘*shelterwood B*’ option ( $1901 \text{ gC}$   
418  $\text{m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ), while mean NPP was the highest under the ‘*natural regeneration*’ option ( $536 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ).  
419 Mean pCWS was maximized with ‘*heavy thinning*’ ( $269 \text{ tC ha}^{-1}$ ), while the highest simulated BA  
420 was tied between the ‘*natural regeneration*’ and ‘*shelterwood A*’ options ( $42 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ). The ‘*heavy*  
421 ‘*thinning*’ option led to the lowest mean GPP ( $1359 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ), NPP ( $419 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ ) and BA ( $37 \text{ m}^2$   
422  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ), while the lowest mean pCWS emerged under the ‘*natural regeneration*’ simulation ( $77 \text{ tC ha}^{-1}$ )  
423 (Table 3; Figure 3). Overall, ‘*natural regeneration*’, ‘*patch clearcut*’, ‘*shelterwood A*’ and  
424 ‘*shelterwood B*’ options exhibited a similar increase in GPP (between  $29\%$  and  $34\%$ ), NPP (between  
425  $17\%$  and  $22\%$ ) and BA (between  $1\%$  and  $3\%$ ), compared to ‘*no management*’. Conversely, ‘*light*’  
426 and ‘*heavy thinning*’ showed a decrease in GPP ( $-1\%$  and  $-4\%$ ), NPP ( $-3\%$  and  $-6\%$ ) and BA ( $-4\%$

427 and -11%). pCWS increased between 79% and 93% under the thinning and shelterwood options,  
 428 while it showed a 30% increase with ‘*patch clearcut*’ and a 45% decrease under the ‘*natural*  
 429 *regeneration*’ option (Table 3; Figure 3 and 4; Figure S3).

430

431 **Table 3.** Mean values of selected model outputs for seven management options and three time  
 432 windows. The values have been averaged across all climate scenarios. Relative changes between each  
 433 option and the baseline ‘*no management*’ scenario are reported in brackets. The highest and lowest  
 434 values when compared to the ‘*no management*’ scenario are reported in bold.

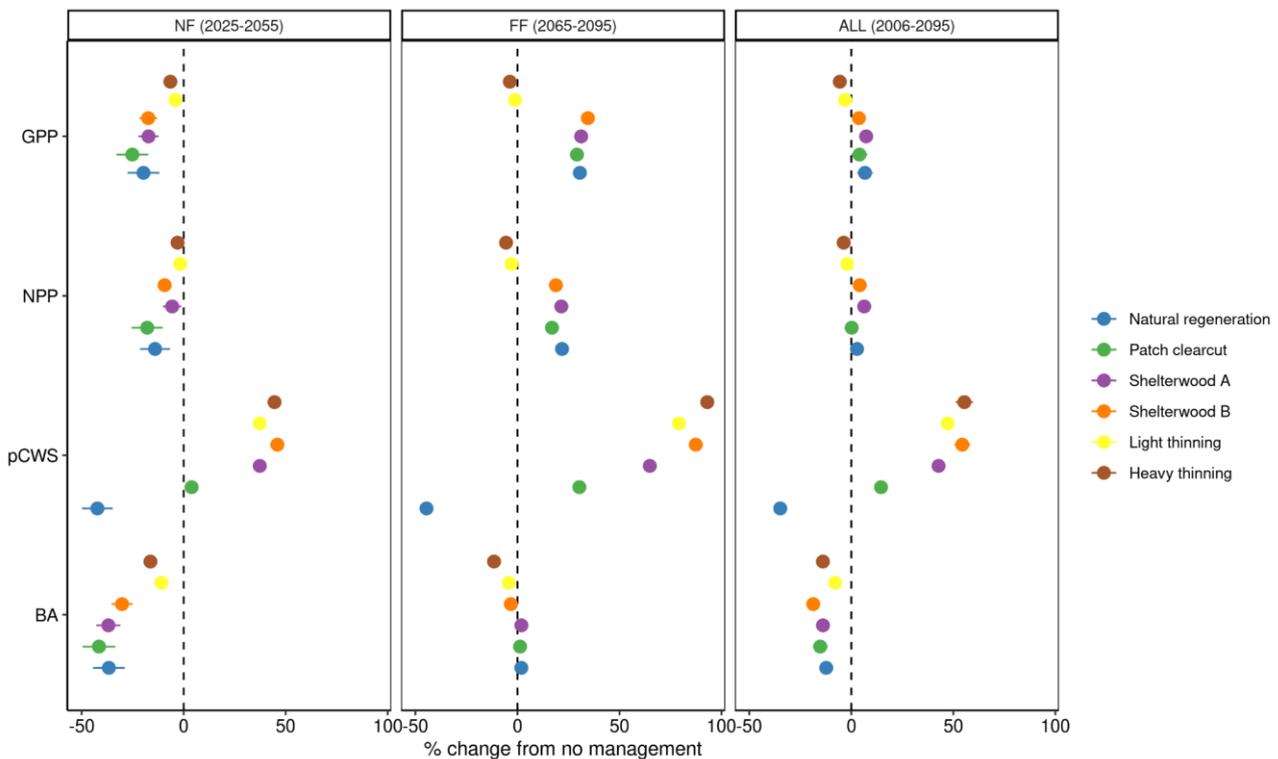
	Near future (2025 - 2055)				Far future (2065 - 2095)				All (2006 - 2095)			
	GPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	NPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	pCWS (tC ha <sup>-1</sup> )	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	GPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	NPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	pCWS (tC ha <sup>-1</sup> )	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	GPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	NPP (gC m <sup>-2</sup> y <sup>-1</sup> )	pCWS (tC ha <sup>-1</sup> )	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )
<b>No management (baseline)</b>	1636	559	115	42	1415	443	139	41	1566	518	121	41
<b>Natural regeneration</b>	1309 (-20)	475 (-14)	<b>64 (-42)</b>	26 (-37)	1846 (31)	<b>536 (22)</b>	<b>77 (-45)</b>	<b>42 (2)</b>	1647 (7)	522 (3)	<b>76 (-35)</b>	36 (-12)
<b>Light thinning</b>	<b>1569 (-4)</b>	<b>549 (-2)</b>	158 (37)	<b>37 (-11)</b>	1397 (-1)	430 (-3)	250 (79)	39 (-4)	1518 (-3)	508 (-2)	183 (47)	<b>38 (-8)</b>
<b>Heavy thinning</b>	1530 (-7)	542 (-3)	166 (45)	35 (-16)	<b>1359 (-4)</b>	<b>419 (-6)</b>	<b>269 (93)</b>	<b>37 (-11)</b>	<b>1477 (-6)</b>	<b>500 (-4)</b>	<b>193 (55)</b>	36 (-14)
<b>Patch clearcut</b>	<b>1221 (-25)</b>	<b>453 (-18)</b>	119 (4)	<b>24 (-41)</b>	1827 (29)	515 (17)	181 (30)	42 (1)	1605 (4)	509 (0)	141 (15)	35 (-15)
<b>Shelterwood A</b>	1352 (-17)	522 (-6)	158 (37)	26 (-37)	1856 (31)	534 (21)	229 (65)	42 (2)	<b>1657 (7)</b>	<b>541 (6)</b>	176 (43)	36 (-14)
<b>Shelterwood B</b>	1356 (-17)	507 (-9)	<b>168 (46)</b>	29 (-30)	<b>1901 (34)</b>	524 (19)	261 (87)	40 (-3)	1603 (4)	532 (4)	192 (54)	<b>34 (-19)</b>

435

436 Between 2006 and 2095, GPP was maximized under the ‘*natural regeneration*’, ‘*patch clearcut*’,  
 437 ‘*shelterwood A*’ and ‘*shelterwood B*’ options (1603 - 1657 gC m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>), corresponding to a 4% to 7%  
 438 increase compared to ‘*no management*’ (1566 gC m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>), while the thinning options showed the  
 439 lowest values (1477 - 1518 gC m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>) and a decrease between 3% and 6%. NPP showed a similar  
 440 trend, with the ‘*natural regeneration*’, ‘*shelterwood A*’ and ‘*shelterwood B*’ options exhibiting the  
 441 highest values (522 - 541 gC m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>), corresponding to an increase between 3% and 6%, compared  
 442 to ‘*no management*’ (518 gC m<sup>-2</sup> y<sup>-1</sup>). The ‘*patch clearcut*’ simulation had similar NPP (509 gC m<sup>-2</sup>

443  $\text{y}^{-1}$ ) to 'no management', while the thinning options showed lower values (500 - 508  $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{y}^{-1}$ )  
444 corresponding to a 3% to 4% decrease. All management options showed lower BA values (34 - 38  $\text{m}^2$   
445  $\text{ha}^{-1}$ ) compared to 'no management', corresponding to a relative change between -8% ('light  
446 thinning') and -19% ('shelterwood B'). As for pCWS, all options except 'natural regeneration' (76  
447  $\text{tC ha}^{-1}$ ) had greater values than 'no management' (121  $\text{tC ha}^{-1}$ ), with the thinning and shelterwood  
448 options exhibiting similar values (177 - 193  $\text{tC ha}^{-1}$ ), corresponding to a 45% to 55% increase (Table  
449 3; Figure 3 and 4; Figure S3).

450

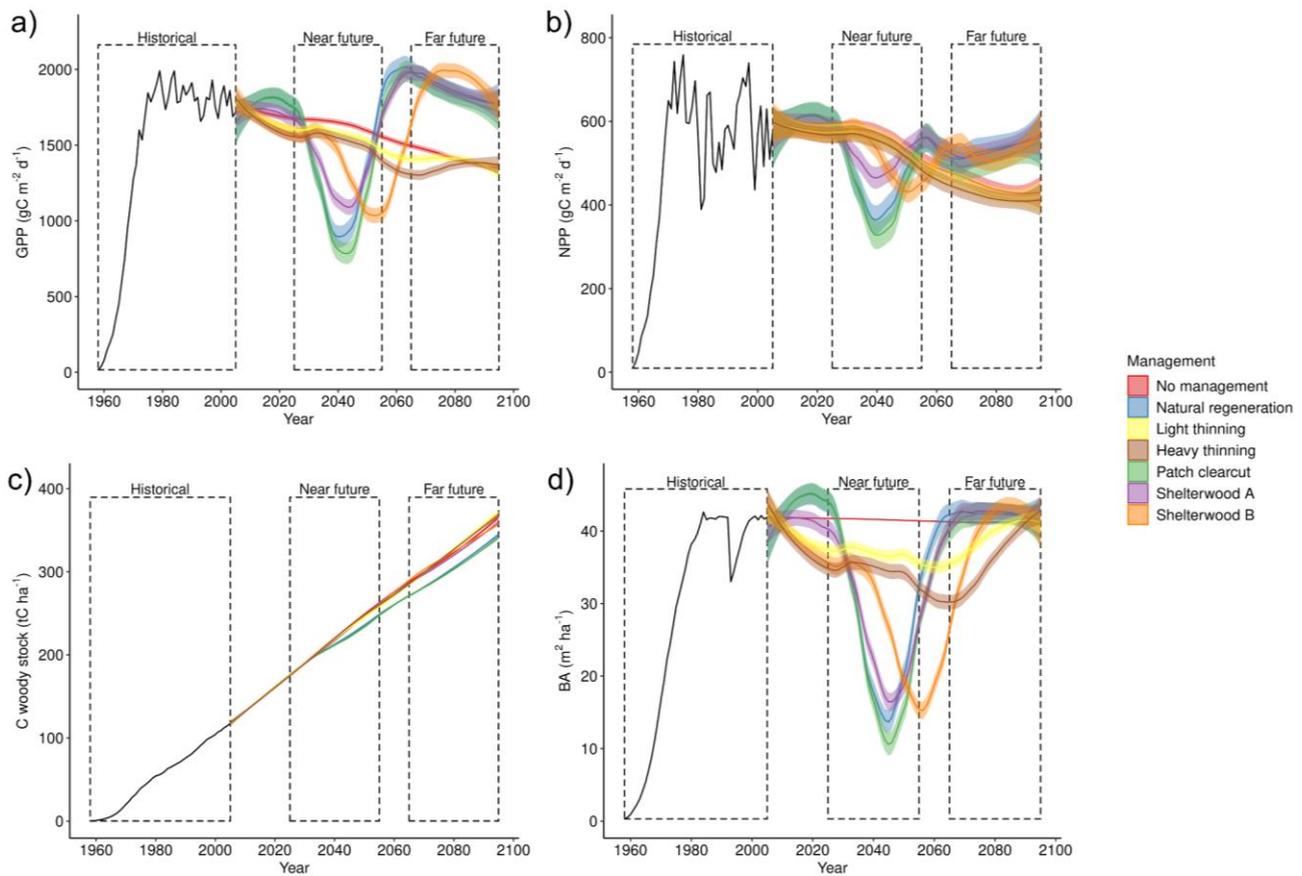


451

452 **Figure 3.** Relative change of modeled outputs according to different management options compared  
453 to the baseline 'no management' scenario within the NF, FF and ALL time windows. The error bars  
454 are the 95% confidence intervals.

455

456



457

458 **Figure 4.** Simulated GPP (a), NPP (b), pCWS (c) and BA (d) according to seven management options.  
459 Black lines are the historical simulations from 1958 to 2005. Solid lines from 2006 onwards are a  
460 *loess* fit of the outputs produced by different climate scenarios (NOCC, RCP4.5, RCP8.5) for each  
461 management option. Shaded areas are the confidence intervals of the fit and represent the climatic  
462 variability among scenarios within each management option.

463

## 464 Discussion

### 465 Model evaluation

466 The 3D-CMCC-FEM reproduced the development of a Laricio pine stand in the Bonis watershed over  
467 a 58 year span. Our evaluation of stand attributes showed that, starting from the establishment of the  
468 plantation in 1958, the simulated mean stand DBH and tree density fell reasonably well within the  
469 measured range of two independent datasets: average values for low and high density Laricio pine  
470 plantations in the area between 1986 and 1999 (Callegari et al.; 2003), and the forest plots surveyed

471 between 1993 and 2016. The model was also able to simulate historical management activities and  
472 their effects on forest development. Indeed, the simulation included a thinning of 25% of stand BA  
473 that took place in 1993 at the stand, which was reflected by the reduction in tree density in that year  
474 and a slight increase in the growth rate of mean stand DBH in the following years ( $0.6 \text{ cm y}^{-1}$  after  
475 the thinning vs.  $0.3 \text{ cm y}^{-1}$  before the thinning).

476 Furthermore, the model was able to reproduce the mean seasonal cycle of daily GPP as obtained by  
477 the eddy covariance tower with sufficient accuracy, supporting previous assessments of model  
478 performance (Collalti et al., 2014, 2016, 2018; Alessio Collalti et al., 2020; Dalmonech et al., 2022;  
479 Engel et al., 2021; Marconi et al., 2017). The  $R^2$  of 0.69 is in line with previous evaluations of  
480 simulated daily GPP across northern European forest sites (average  $R^2$  across three sites = 0.73;  
481 Collalti et al., 2018), while the ME of 0.61 is within the range found for daily GPP simulated with  
482 other process-based models (0.42 - 0.84 in Bagnara et al., 2015; 0.61 - 0.98 in Minunno et al., 2016).

### 483 **Impacts of climate change**

484 In the first half of the XXI century, both RCPs projected similar increments in mean annual  
485 temperature and vapor pressure deficit with no significant changes in the amount of precipitation for  
486 the Bonis watershed. These trends were mirrored by a positive tendency for all output variables in the  
487 NF time window. The GPP, NPP, pCWS and BA of the simulated Laricio pine stand seemingly  
488 benefitted from the fertilizing effect of increased atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration, the lengthening of  
489 the growing season and sufficient water availability (Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2017; Kramer et al., 2000;  
490 Simioni et al., 2020). Conversely, in the second half of the XXI century, a reduction in precipitation  
491 and an increase in temperature – in line with previous estimates for the Mediterranean basin (Lionello  
492 and Scarascia, 2018; Santini et al., 2014) – were leading to a decrease of all the variables with the  
493 exception of GPP. These changes were more pronounced under the most emission-intensive scenario  
494 and toward the end of the century, negatively affecting the ability of Laricio pine stands to absorb and  
495 to store C. Indeed, despite a very modest increase in GPP, our simulations predicted a moderate  
496 decrease of pCWS and BA, and a strong decrease in NPP of Laricio pine stands. These changes

497 affected all management options regardless of the climate scenario. The decline in water availability  
498 is likely responsible for an increased water stress, which could offset the positive effects of increased  
499 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations on photosynthesis (Cinnirella et al., 2002), while higher temperatures  
500 favor autotrophic respiration and photorespiration (Dusenge et al., 2019; Gea-Izquierdo et al., 2017;  
501 Lindner et al., 2010). If autotrophic respiration increases more than GPP, then NPP decreases  
502 proportionally and C-stocks and BA increase at a slower rate (Alessio Collalti et al., 2020). Previous  
503 studies already highlighted the negative effect of temperature and soil moisture scarcity on leaf  
504 development and tree growth for forests in general and, more in particular, for Laricio pines  
505 (Cinnirella et al., 2002; Mazza et al., 2018). However, the emergence of pervasive acclimation  
506 mechanisms (e.g., changes in C-allocation for reserve accumulation) in this species could reduce  
507 forest vulnerability to extreme events, thus preventing extensive dieback episodes (Cinnirella et al.,  
508 2002; Mazza et al., 2018). Nonetheless, indirect effects of climate change, including increased  
509 vulnerability of trees to pathogen attacks, could lead to higher mortality rates in spite of physiological  
510 adaptations (Gentilesca et al., 2017; Resco De Dios et al., 2007). Recent studies have shown the  
511 ambiguity in the responses of forests to both warming and enriched atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration  
512 (Rezaie et al., 2018), probably related to site-specific factors (e.g. forest age, forest structure, soil  
513 nutrient availability and microclimate). While Central and Northern Europe seem to show a general  
514 increase in both C-sequestration and C-stocks in the short- to medium-term (Reyer et al., 2015), the  
515 impact of increasing droughts and disturbance risk will likely outweigh positive trends in Southern  
516 Europe, with an expected decline in the productivity of the Mediterranean region (Lindner et al., 2010;  
517 Reyer et al., 2014; Simioni et al., 2020). In this respect, the Bonis experimental watershed represents  
518 a unique experimental site with mountain climate at the center of the Mediterranean basin. These  
519 features make it particularly exposed to the effects of climate change, hence its likely role of sentinel  
520 of future changes in forest dynamics for the whole region.

521

522

## 523 **Impacts of forest management**

524 Regardless of the short- to long-term reductions in C-fluxes and C-stocks due to increased temperature  
525 and lower precipitation, the effect of management on forest attributes largely outplays that of climate  
526 change, in line with previous findings for Mediterranean pine forests (del Río et al., 2017) and other  
527 European forests (e.g., Akujärvi et al., 2019; Gutsch et al., 2018). Therefore, the choice of far-sighted  
528 management options is key to the future of Laricio pine stands in the Bonis watershed, with the aim  
529 of preserving and enhancing primary production and carbon storage capacity over time, improving  
530 forests resilience to biotic and abiotic stresses, as well as promoting their structural complexity and  
531 the multiple ecosystem functions (Scarascia-Mugnozza et al., 2000). The present study aimed at  
532 narrowing the knowledge gap about the potential benefits of alternative forest management options  
533 for pine plantations under climate change, which is of paramount importance in areas close to the  
534 geographical limit of the distribution of pine species like the Bonis watershed (Navarro-Cerrillo et al.,  
535 2019).

536 Our simulations showed that, in the first half of the XXI century, the lack of management interventions  
537 led to higher C-fluxes (i.e., GPP and NPP) and BA, as opposed to production-oriented management  
538 strategies involving clear-cutting or the shelterwood system, which abruptly slowed down C-fluxes  
539 because of the strong reduction in leaf area and in situ standing biomass. Yet, such commercial forest-  
540 oriented options showed to maximize C-fluxes in the second half of the XXI century as a response to  
541 regeneration or replanting. Despite these fluctuations, the overall effect on C-fluxes of different  
542 management options over the 2006 - 2095 period was modest, with a relative change range between  
543 -6% and +7% compared to '*no management*'. These results might allude that either forest  
544 management is counterbalancing the apparently positive effects of warming and increasing  
545 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, or that the Laricio pine has already reached its suitability optimum  
546 for this particular geographic area. However, it has been previously demonstrated that the lack of  
547 forest management in pine plantations might increase inter-tree competition, hence vulnerability to  
548 drought stress (Manrique-Alba et al., 2020; Martín-Benito et al., 2010; Navarro-Cerrillo et al., 2019).

549 Furthermore, unmanaged pine plantations of the Mediterranean basin are simplified ecosystems  
550 composed of high-density, even-aged stands with arrested succession and at risk of catastrophic  
551 events like wildfires and pests outbreaks (Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012; Scarascia-Mugnozza et al., 2000).  
552 In this study we simulated a '*natural regeneration*' option in which the unmanaged standing biomass  
553 is eliminated after a simulated destructive event (i.e., a wildfire). While the average C-sink is similar  
554 to the other management options, all the on-site C returns to the atmosphere as an effect of the  
555 simulated disturbance. As this scenario represents an increasingly likely outcome in Mediterranean  
556 pine plantations under climate change, forest managers should prioritize active management options  
557 aimed at reducing fire risk by decreasing the fuel load. Among these options, thinning interventions  
558 are particularly promising, as they have demonstrated to reduce fireline intensity while avoiding  
559 emissions from prescribed burning (Rabin et al., 2022). The simulated thinning options exhibited  
560 minor reductions in C-fluxes and BA, compared to the absence of management, along the whole  
561 simulation. The '*light thinning*' option (28% reduction of BA every 15 years), in particular, showed  
562 the lowest decrease of the above mentioned variables among all active management strategies.  
563 Conversely, pCWS were maximized under the '*heavy thinning*' and '*shelterwood B*' options, which  
564 involved the strongest removals of BA (35.5% reduction of BA every 15 years and 28.5% of BA  
565 every 10 years, respectively).

566 Previous studies highlighted the role of management strategies comprising a reduction of tree density  
567 (i.e., thinning and shelterwood) in improving overall forest health in the Mediterranean region  
568 (Brichta et al., 2020; del Río et al., 2017; Manrique-Alba et al., 2020; Martín-Benito et al., 2010;  
569 Navarro-Cerrillo et al., 2019; Prévosto et al., 2011; Ruiz-Benito et al., 2012). In the shelterwood  
570 system, stand density is reduced to increase light availability, with positive effects on the growth of  
571 naturally established seedlings (Prévosto et al., 2011). Shelterwood regeneration of pine species was  
572 found to be more favorable with respect to microsite characteristics and of greater quality compared  
573 to replanting after clear-cut – especially after a heavy reduction of initial stand density – making it a  
574 potentially useful management option to mitigate the negative effects of climate change (Brichta et

575 al., 2020). Similarly, thinning interventions have been observed to reduce competition for water, light  
576 and soil nutrients – thus increasing photosynthetic rates – as well as improving both carbon and water  
577 use-efficiency and C-uptake capacity of remaining trees (Collalti et al., 2020; Manrique-Alba et al.,  
578 2020; Martín-Benito et al., 2010; Navarro-Cerrillo et al., 2019; Rezaie et al., 2018). In particular,  
579 moderate to heavy thinning interventions (between 25 to 50% reduction of stand BA) have been  
580 recommended as a drought adaptation measure for Mediterranean pine forests with long-lasting  
581 positive effects (Manrique-Alba et al., 2020). Furthermore, heavy thinning was found to increase the  
582 C-sequestration potential of these environments by compensating the loss of on-site C with an  
583 increased total C-stock when harvested woody products are taken into account (del Río et al., 2017).  
584 Our results for a Laricio pine stand at the Bonis watershed were consistent to the above mentioned  
585 findings. Thinnings represent a viable management option for the study area that maximizes the  
586 potential C-stocks while providing improved conditions in relation to secondary climate change  
587 effects. On the other hand, the shelterwood options represent a halfway alternative between patch  
588 clearcut and thinnings, that can be used to renaturalize Laricio pine forests, with cascading positive  
589 effects on the local water balance and hydrogeological risk reduction.

### 590 **Assumptions and caveats**

591 The 3D-CMCC-FEM allowed to simulate several management options for Laricio pine plantations at  
592 Bonis watershed under different climate scenarios considering biogeochemical, biophysical,  
593 physiological and stand development processes. In the current version, the model was unable to  
594 simulate some forest disturbances that are likely to impact our study area like recurrent wildfires and  
595 pest outbreaks. However, we explicitly simulated a single destructive event under the '*natural*  
596 *regeneration*' option, consisting in the complete removal of the standing biomass after 80 years from  
597 the planting, followed by natural regeneration. Although limited in scope, such simulation provides  
598 an overview of the effects of perturbations that might potentially occur to Laricio pine plantations in  
599 the absence of proactive management in the area. We also recognize that more management options  
600 than the ones we simulated are available. Yet, our scenarios cover several objectives including post-

601 disturbance management, wood production and renaturalization and reflect the state-of-the-science of  
602 management types applied to this region of the Italian Apennines (Cantiani et al., 2018). Furthermore,  
603 the model does not account for the effect of soil nutrients on tree growth. Yet, nutrient availability is  
604 generally considered a secondary driver of tree growth in Laricio pine forests, which are however  
605 mainly limited by soil moisture (Mazza et al., 2018). Finally, the simulations did not include species  
606 replacement due to competition and colonization. However, the forests at the Bonis watershed are  
607 dominated by Laricio pines, both natural and artificial, which are likely to recolonize gaps in the  
608 absence of proactive replanting of other tree species.

609

## 610 **Conclusions**

611 Overall, our 137-year simulation showed that climate change will affect the development of Laricio  
612 pine plantations at the Bonis watershed, with profound impacts on C-sinks and C-stocks especially in  
613 the second half of the century. However, the choice of future management will exert an even stronger  
614 effect on the C-sink and C-stock capacity of such forests. Therefore, planning appropriate  
615 management options aimed at maintaining and enhancing these features, while favoring the  
616 renaturalization of these environments, is key to allow the future provision of forest ecosystem  
617 services in the area. Among the investigated options, thinning interventions represent the most  
618 promising management practice, also considering their documented contribution to increasing  
619 drought resistance and reducing fire risk. The present work provided a first overview of the joint effect  
620 of climate change and management on one of the southernmost European forest sites, with direct  
621 implications for the planning of adaptive management strategies in Mediterranean pine forests. Yet,  
622 further studies are required to assess the impact of recurrent stand disturbances, changes in soil  
623 nutrient concentrations and species replacement on multiple ecosystem services.

624

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