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Original

Influence of management and stand composition on ecosystem multifunctionality of Mediterranean tree forests / Carmona-Yáñez, Md; Lucas-Borja, Me; Zema, Da; Jing, X; Kooch, Y; Gallego, Pg; Plaza-Alvarez, Pa; Zhou, Gy; Delgado-Baquerizo, M. - In: TREES. - ISSN 0931-1890. - 37:6(2023), pp. 1801-1816. [10.1007/s00468-023-02462-w]

Availability:

This version is available at: <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12318/141548> since: 2024-11-22T10:31:33Z

Published

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1007/s00468-023-02462-w>

The final published version is available online at: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00468-023->

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14 January 2025

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

Carmona-Yáñez, M.D., Lucas-Borja, M.E., Zema, D.A., Jing, X., Kooch, Y., Garrido Gallego, P., Plaza-Alvarez, P.A., Zhou, G., Delgado-Baquerizo, M. 2023. *Influence of management and stand composition on ecosystem multifunctionality of Mediterranean tree forests*. *Trees (Wiley)*, 7, 1801-1816,

which has been published in final doi

10.1007/s00468-023-02462-w

(<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00468-023-02462-w>)

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Influence of management and stand composition on ecosystem multifunctionality of Mediterranean tree forests

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ABSTRACT

In semi-arid ecosystems, forests are critical sites for supporting multifunctionality, which is endangered by multiple environmental stresses. In this regard, understanding how ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF) develops in semi-arid forests is important to setup actions preserving these delicate environments. Changes in species composition and management operations can

have heavy effects on the Mediterranean forest ecosystem. In order to better understand the influence of these drivers on EMF of Mediterranean forests, this study compares ecosystem structure, properties and functions as well as the resulting EMF in four types of forests in Central Eastern Spain: (1) a pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine, assumed as control; (2) a pure but managed stand of Spanish black pine; (3) two mixed and unmanaged stands of Spanish black pine and (3.a) Spanish juniper and (3.b) holm oak. Regarding the ecosystem structure, both forest management and stand composition altered plant diversity but not soil covers (except for vegetation). About the ecosystem properties, soil characteristics significantly changed between pairs of stands (especially texture, pH and bulk density). Concerning the ecosystem functions, forest stand structure was a significant driver of waste decomposition but not of wood production, while its effect on nutrient cycling, belowground carbon stocks and water cycle was different according to the specific tree species. The impacts of forest management on the ecosystem functions were in general significant compared to the unmanaged stand in terms of wood production, belowground carbon stocks, nutrient cycling, but not of water cycle and waste decomposition. Overall, this study demonstrates that the average EMF is primarily affected by forest management (with a decrease in EMF in managed stands compared to the unmanaged forest), and by stand composition only in the case of one mixed stand. As such, the forest management actions must be carefully adopted, in order to avoid EMF degradation.

KEYWORDS: Mixed forest stands; pure forest stands; ecosystem properties; ecosystem structure; ecosystem functions.

KEY MESSAGE: The multiple functions of Mediterranean forest ecosystems primarily decrease with management operations, and secondarily with tree composition. This finding emphasises the importance of a suitable management for maintaining ecosystem functioning in Mediterranean forests.

1. INTRODUCTION

Ecosystem multifunctionality (hereafter “EMF”) is “the simultaneous provision of multiple services and functions by landscape to society” (Maestre et al. 2012; Byrnes et al. 2014). In

forests, these functions or services include nutrient cycling (e.g., nutrient availability and mineralization), carbon sequestration, climate and water regulation, organic matter decomposition (e.g., lignin degradation) and wood production (Ushio et al. 2010; Aponte et al. 2013; Byrnes et al. 2014). Forests are critical sites for supporting EMF, especially in semi-arid ecosystems, such as in the Mediterranean region. Here, multiple environmental stresses (i.e., climate change, excessive harvesting, pests and diseases, drought, forest fires and low contents of organic matter and nutrients) are great challenges for the sustainability and productivity of forest ecosystems. Therefore, understanding how EMF develops in Mediterranean forests is important for landscape planners to safeguard these delicate ecosystems.

Different environmental stressors (e.g., droughts or wildfires) and inadequate management strategies of forests, such as some silvicultural operations that promote specific stand composition, may significantly affect ecosystem functions or services (Benz et al. 2020). For instance, Pohjanmies et al. (2021) showed that management strategies promoting monospecific forest (e.g., monocultures) negatively affects ecosystem multifunctionality, also hindering its recovery in comparison to mixed forests. Moreover, in monospecific forest ecosystems, resource extraction can fundamentally change its structure and functioning (Edwards et al. 2014). In contrast, the effects of stand composition in mixed forests are usually considered beneficial for the ecosystem, because the different residues of plants can improve soil health, increasing biodiversity, contents of nutrients, and waste decomposition. As a result of complementarity (e.g., positive interactions between forest species or more efficient use of light or soil resources) or selection (e.g., increase in the presence of species with higher overall ecosystem service potential in comparison to monocultures) effects, tree species diversity may increase ecosystem productivity in comparison to monospecific forest stands (Zhang et al. 2012; Huuskonen et al. 2021). In this context, we are still lacking to know the associations between tree stand composition and EMF in pure or mixed Mediterranean forest species, limiting our capacity to predict how future forest management plans and restoration efforts may help to promote EMF and mitigate climate change (Gleixner et al. 2005; Grayston and Prescott 2005; De Cáceres et al. 2021).

However, the different types of plant may cause contrasting influences on EMF, since Mediterranean forests include a wide variety of dominant tree species. In more detail, the specific composition of tree species and other plant types may change the equilibrium of some components in forest ecosystem, such as soils and plants. Soils can undergo both accumulation and loss of organic matter in the forest floor, which thereby can alter the physico-chemical and microbiological properties of soils (Entry and Emmingham 1998). The quality and quantity of soil organic matter are important drivers of the soil component in forest ecosystems (and thus of EMF), since organic compounds support productivity, biodiversity, and other ecosystem services (van Leeuwen et al. 2014; Zornoza et al. 2015; Lozano-García et al. 2016). Moreover, the different plant species may differently influence the enzymatic activities (associated to the dynamics of soil organic matter and nutrients in forest soils), which are considered among the best proxies of soil health and activity (Dick et al. 1997). This means that both the dynamics of organic matter and nutrients, and the variability of enzymatic activities need to be considered concurrently to understand the changes of EMF in different forest stands.

The relations between forest management and stand composition on one side, and EMF on the other side are still vague. This insufficient knowledge requires investigations that should explore the changes in EMF in relation to both forest operations and presence of different tree species, since the potential trade-offs between ecosystem functions and these factors are virtually unknown in Mediterranean forests. Improving our understanding of the changes in EMF as a response to forest management and stand composition is of paramount importance for conservation of Mediterranean forests and for a proper restoration of the threatened forest ecosystems worldwide (Ferguson 1996). At least to the authors' best knowledge, no previous assessments of EMF and its main drivers have been carried out in semi-arid Mediterranean forests, either in pure or mixed stands or between managed and unmanaged sites, and this is the main novelty of this study.

To fill this gap, this study aims at evaluating how tree stand composition and management influence ecosystem multi-functionality (EMF) in Mediterranean forests. More specifically, EMF was compared in four forest stands of Central Eastern Spain: (1) a pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine, assumed as control; (2) a pure but managed stand of Spanish black

pine; and (3) two mixed but unmanaged stands of Spanish black pine and (3.a) Spanish juniper and (3.b) holm oak. The research questions supporting this study are two: (i) does forest management or stand composition noticeably affect EMF in Spanish black pine forests under semi-arid conditions? And (ii) which of multiple forest functions (nutrient cycling, wood production, waste decomposition, water, and belowground carbon stocks) mostly influences EMF of managed vs. unmanaged pure stands or pure vs. mixed stands of Spanish black pine? The replies to these questions may improve our understanding of the changes in EMF as a response to forest management and stand composition, and this knowledge may support the selection of the most suitable forest management actions, in order to avoid EMF degradation.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Study area

The study was conducted in “Los Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest (geographical coordinates: 40°01′50″N; 1°59′10″W; average elevation: 1200 m a.s.l.) (Figure 1), which, covering 18078 ha, is the largest element among the Natural Monuments in Castilla La Mancha (Central-Eastern Spain). Moreover, this natural ecosystem is included in the endangered habitats of European Union, since it belongs to a natural habitat requiring specific conservation measures (Resolution 4/1996 by the Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats). The study region has a Mediterranean climate with hot dry summers and humid winters (de Zulueta 1990). Mean annual temperature is 11.9 °C, ranging from -0.5 °C in January to 30.5 °C in July. Mean annual precipitation is 595 mm, 99 mm of which occurring on average in summer. Regarding vegetation, the tree layer is dominated by natural Spanish black pine (*Pinus nigra* Arn. ssp *salzmannii*), holm oak (*Quercus ilex* L.) and Spanish Juniper (*Juniperus Thurifera* L.) trees. Herbaceous vegetation mainly consists of *Eryngium campestre* L., *Geranium selvaticum* L., *Centaurea paniculata* L. and *Plantago media* L. Soils were *Leptosols* (according to the Soil Atlas of Europe, 2005) with sandy-loam or loamy-sand texture (USDA classification) (Table 1).

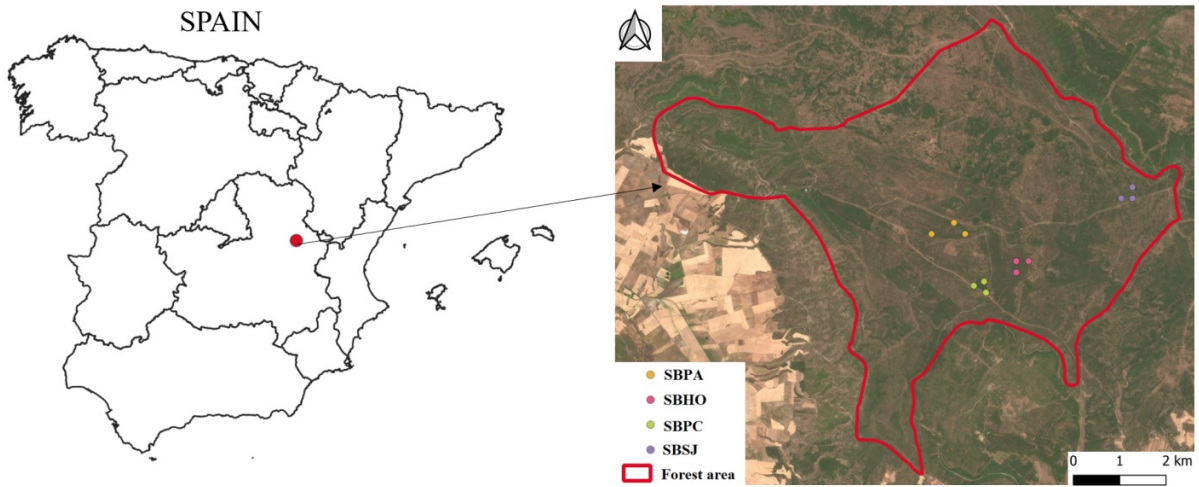


Figure 1 - Geographical location (a) and aerial map (b) of the study area (“Los Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest, Castilla La Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain). *Legend: SBPA = pure and managed stand of Spanish black pine; SBSJ = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and Spanish juniper; SBHO = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and holm oak; SBPC = pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine.*

1 Table 1 – Main vegetal characteristics of the four forest stands in the study area (“Los Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest, Castilla La
 2 Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain).

3

| Forest stand | Tree composition* | Main herbaceous composition | Soil type and texture |
|--------------|---|---|------------------------|
| SBSJ | <i>Pinus nigra</i> Arn. ssp <i>salzmannii</i> (65 %) <i>Juniperus thurifera</i> (35 %) | <i>Eryngium campestre</i> L., <i>Geranium selvaticum</i> L., <i>Plantago media</i> L., <i>Festuca rubra</i> L., <i>Centaurea paniculata</i> L. and <i>Achillea odorata</i> L | leptosol loamy-sand |
| SBHO | <i>Pinus nigra</i> Arn. ssp <i>salzmannii</i> (80 %) <i>Quercus ilex</i> (20 %) | <i>Eryngium campestre</i> L., <i>Geranium selvaticum</i> L., <i>Plantago media</i> L., <i>Festuca rubra</i> L., <i>Centaurea paniculata</i> L. and <i>Achillea odorata</i> L | leptosol sandy-loam |
| SBPA | <i>Pinus nigra</i> Arn. ssp <i>salzmannii</i> (100 %) | <i>Eryngium campestre</i> L., <i>Geranium selvaticum</i> L., <i>Plantago media</i> L., <i>Festuca rubra</i> L., <i>Centaurea paniculata</i> L. and <i>Achillea odorata</i> L | leptosol sandy-loam |
| SBPC | <i>Pinus nigra</i> Arn. ssp <i>salzmannii</i> (100 %) | <i>Geranium selvaticum</i> L., <i>Achillea odorata</i> L., <i>Lavandula latifolia</i> L., <i>Festuca rubra</i> L., <i>Cardus-cellus hispanicus</i> L., <i>Trifolium montanum</i> L | leptosol sandy-loam |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|
| | | | |
|--|--|--|--|

4 *Notes: * based on tree density; soil type information derived from Soil Atlas of Europe (2005); soil texture identified according to the USDA classification;*
5 *SBPA = pure and managed stand of Spanish black pine; SBSJ = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and Spanish juniper; SBHO = mixed stand of Spanish black*
6 *pine and holm oak; SBPC = pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine.*

7

8 Since the end of the 19th century, Spanish black pine stands have been managed under different
9 systems. A shelterwood system with a 100-to-120-year rotation and a 20-to-30-year regeneration
10 period is the traditional method. Initial seedling recruitment has always been difficult, due to
11 factors such as summer drought, soil compaction, masting conditions, seed predation, inadequate
12 overstorey density, attacks by European pine shoot moth on seedlings, and damage from grazing
13 animals, which is often the major problem. During the last century, forest managers tried to
14 enhance regeneration by soil treatments, planting, and introduction of new varieties of species,
15 but the results have been disappointing. Protecting areas of natural regeneration from browsing
16 by large mammals has also been necessary, since this damage is a major problem for the
17 regeneration of forest stands.

19 ***2.2. Experimental design***

21 *2.2.1. Selection of forest stands and plot installation*

23 In the study area, four forest stands were considered to explore the ecosystem multifunctionality.
24 Specifically, an unmanaged and pure stand of Spanish Black Pine (hereafter indicated by
25 “SBPC”) was assumed as reference stand. This stand, which was about 180-200 years old,
26 represents a natural land evolution in the study area. Three other stands were selected as pure but
27 managed, or mixed but unmanaged stands: (1) a pure stand of Spanish black pine, managed for
28 timber production according to traditional silvicultural practices in Cuenca Mountains (remained
29 the same since the end of the 19th century) (hereafter “SBPA”); and (2) two mixed stands of
30 Spanish Black Pine and (2.a) Spanish Junipers tree (“SBSJ”) or (2.b) holm oak (“SBHO”). These
31 two mixed stands, with tree age over 100 years, were near-natural without distinct anthropogenic
32 impact on their structure in the past several decades. Since mid-last century, holm oak and
33 Spanish juniper species have been excluded from silvicultural treatments, thus promoting the
34 coexistence of mixed forest with these species and Spanish black pine (Table 1). The
35 regeneration method used in both mixed and pure Spanish black pine stands created a uniform
36 opening of the canopy without soil preparation. The main goal for forest management was the
37 increase of forest standing stock and transformation of age-heterogeneous stands into even-aged
38 stands.

39 In September 2017, twelve plots (each of 10 m x 10 m, covering 100 m²) were established in
40 four groups (one group per forest stand, each with three replicates). The reciprocal distance
41 among plots was always higher than 300 m. The selection of locations for the studied stands was
42 a compromise between the double objective to have (i) replicated plots at a suitable reciprocal
43 distance (which avoided the risk of pseudo-replications and thus took into account the spatial
44 heterogeneity of the ecosystem features), and (ii) sites with homogenous ecosystem properties
45 (referred to soils and plants), being, in spite of this reciprocal distance, the topography (aspect,
46 all exposures, and slope, 2 to 5%), altitude (1203 to 1237 m), climatic conditions, and soil type
47 and texture similar (Lucas-Borja et al. 2010) (Table 1). The selected plot size appears to be
48 suitable for the specific study, since this size allowed the identification of homogeneous sites
49 with minor differences in the indicators used to evaluate the ecosystem features and the resulting
50 EMF in the selected stands. Moreover, although the selected stands are of different age, the
51 difference between the selected old and managed stands seems to be appropriate, also
52 considering that Spanish Black Pine is one of the long-living tree species in Spain, with some
53 trees reaching 800 years old.

54

55 The same approach (with different purposes) as in this study was used in Zema et al. (2021a),
56 Zhou et al. (2022a; 2022b) and Carmona-Yáñez et al. (2023).

57

58 *2.2.2. Analysis of plant cover and diversity*

59

60 In September 2017, a species survey was carried out in the plots, to define the structure of the
61 plant communities for each forest stand. Three 10-m long transects were set up in the centre, and
62 in the right and left sides of each plot. Ground cover and species richness were calculated at each
63 transect following (Elzinga et al. 2001). The ground cover was calculated for each plot as the
64 average of the three transects, considering only trees with height > 1.5 m. At each plot of the
65 forest stands, the tree basal area was calculated as the sum of each tree cross-sectional area at
66 breast height (1.3 m). Tree density was calculated as the mean value of the sum of all trees
67 divided by plot surface. Tree age was calculated by coring and counting tree rings obtained from
68 five dominant trees. Finally, tree height was calculated by measuring the tree height of five
69 dominant trees using a Suunto Clinometer PM-5 Series®.

70

71 2.2.3. *Soil sampling and analysis*

72

73 At the same date as the vegetation survey, soil samples (diameter of 30 cm) were manually
74 collected at each plot. Sampling was done, after removing litter, on the surface horizon (up to -5
75 cm), where the largest portion of microbial biomass and activity occurs, and the effects of tree
76 species (through litter chemistry) are stronger compared to deeper horizons. Each soil sample
77 was composed by six sub-samples (200 g), randomly collected at each plot. After removing plant
78 residues, the sub-samples were passed through a 2 mm sieve and then thoroughly mixed in the
79 composite sample. Finally, the soil samples were kept at 3° C prior to the analyses.

80

81 Many chemical, physical, and biochemical parameters of soils sampled at each plot were
82 determined. The following chemical properties of soil were analysed: (1) texture (sand, silt, and
83 clay contents), following the method of Guitian Ojea and Carballas (1976); (2) pH in a 1:5 (w/v)
84 aqueous solution by a portable pH-meter; (3) content of carbonates, according to Porta (1998);
85 (4) total carbon content, according to Zhang and Biswas (2017); (5) water-soluble carbon,
86 following Danielsson (1982); (6) organic carbon, by the potassium dichromate oxidation method
87 (Nelson and Sommers 1996); (7) total nitrogen, by Kjeldahl method (Bremner 1982); and (8)
88 total phosphorous, by ICP spectrometry after nitric-perchloric acid digestion. The water extract
89 was obtained by shaking for two hours a mixture of soil and distilled water (1:10 soil:water
90 ratio), centrifuging and filtering. Based on carbon and nitrogen measurements, the C:N ratio was
91 calculated according to Lucas-Borja et al. (2012).

92

93 Among the physical properties, bulk density was determined, using a soil ring with a volume of
94 98.1 cm³, a diameter of 5 cm, and a height of 5 cm. The sampled soil was oven-dried (at 104 °C
95 for 24 h), and weighed. Soil water repellence (SWR) and unsaturated hydraulic conductivity
96 were measured in ten randomly chosen points at each plot. The water drop penetration time
97 (Woudt 1959) method was adopted for SWR measurement, since this method is one of the most
98 common in the literature (Letey et al. 2000; Buczko and Bens 2006; Tarchitzky et al. 2007),
99 while unsaturated hydraulic conductivity was measured using the Mini Disk Infiltrometer

100 (Decagon Devices, Inc.). More details about these measurements are reported in the studies by
101 Zema et al. (2021a; 2021b).

102

103 Soil samples were also biochemically characterized adopting the following parameters: (1) basal
104 soil respiration, measured in a multiple sensor respirometer (Micro-Oxymax, Columbus, OH,
105 USA) and expressed as μg of $\text{CO}_2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ of soil hour^{-1} ; (2) dehydrogenase activity, measured by
106 modifying the method reported by Von Mersi and Schinner (1991) and expressed as the
107 reduction of p-iodonitrotetrazolium chloride (INT) to p-iodonitrotetrazolium formazan, as μg of
108 INTF g^{-1} of dry soil hour^{-1} ; (3) urease activity, measured according to the method of Tabatabai
109 (1994), which uses urea as the substrate and borate buffer ($\text{pH} = 10$) (Kandeler and Gerber
110 1988), and expressed as $\mu\text{mol N-NH}_4^+ \text{ g}^{-1}$ of dry soil hour^{-1} ; (4) acid-phosphatase and (5) β -
111 glucosidase activities, determined according to Tabatabai and Bremner (1969) and Eivazi and
112 Tabatabai (1977) and expressed as $\mu\text{mol p-NP g}^{-1}$ of dry soil hour^{-1} ; (6) polyphenol oxydase,
113 measured according to Anothai and Chairin (2020).

114

115 Moreover, the bacterial and fungal biomass was estimated by determining the fatty acids. First,
116 phospholipids were measured using the procedure described by Frostegård et al. (1993) and
117 Bardgett et al. (1996) after extraction from 2 g of soil using a chloroform-methanol extraction
118 based on Bligh and Dyer (1959) and fractionation. Phospholipids were then transformed by
119 alkaline methanolysis into fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES), which were quantified by a gas
120 chromatograph (Trace GC Ultra Thermo Scientific) fitted with a 30-m capillary column (Thermo
121 TR-FAME 30m x 0.25 mm ID x 0.25 μm film), using helium as carrier gas. The temperature,
122 initially set up at 150 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 0.5 min, was increased to 180 $^\circ\text{C}$ at a rate of 2 $^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ and then to
123 240 $^\circ\text{C}$ at 4 $^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. The bacterial biomass was quantified using the contents of fatty acids i15:0,
124 a15:0, 15:0, i16:0, i17:0, cy17:0, and cy19:0 (Frostegård et al. 1993; Bardgett et al. 1996), while
125 the fungal biomass using the content of fatty acid 18:2 ω 6 (Federle 1986; Zelles et al. 1995;
126 Bååth 2003). The Gram⁺ (i15:0, a15:0, i16:0, and i17:0) and the Gram⁻ (cy17:0 and cy19:0)
127 specific fatty acids were also measured, to have an indication of the ratio between the Gram⁺ and
128 Gram⁻ bacterial biomass. The ratio of monounsaturated to saturated PLFAs was expressed as
129 mono/sat, and all results were given in nmol g^{-1} .

130

131

132 **2.3. Characterization of EMF**

133

134 The indicators of *ecosystem functions* were first classified into five categories (in brackets the
135 related indicators): (1) nutrient cycling (based on total carbon, water-soluble carbon, nitrogen,
136 phosphorous, C/N of soil); (2) belowground carbon stocks (basal respiration and organic carbon
137 of soil); (3) waste decomposition (dehydrogenase, β -glucosidase, urease, acid-phosphatase,
138 polyphenol oxydase, bacterial biomass, fungal biomass, G^+ biomass, and G^- biomass of soil); (4)
139 wood production (tree basal area, mean age, density, and height); (5) and water cycle (SWR and
140 soil hydraulic conductivity) (Table 2).

141 Each indicator of ecosystem functions (EF) was normalized to values (EF') between 0 and 1,
142 according to equation (1):

143

$$144 \text{EF}' = [\text{EF} - \min(\text{EF})]/[\max(\text{EF}) - \min(\text{EF})]$$

145 (1)

146

147 with EF' and EF indicating the transformed and original values of each ecosystem function, and
148 min and max indicating the minimum and maximum values. This normalization allows a
149 comparison of non-homogenous variables associated to the different ecosystem functions
150 considered in this study, as expressed by different measuring units. This type of normalization
151 indicates where an individual stand is positioned within the whole variability range (0 to 1) for a
152 given ecosystem function. Then, the ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF) was calculated as the
153 average value among the ecosystem functions of each category (Jing et al. 2020).

154 The same method was used to compute the normalized average values of *ecosystem structure*
155 (rock, vegetation, bare soil, and dead wood coverage, and the number of plant species) and
156 *ecosystem properties* (soil texture, bulk density, pH, electrical conductivity, and carbonates).

157 The method adopted in this study to estimate EMF is widely utilized and accepted in the current
158 literature on ecosystem multifunctionality (Maestre et al. 2012; Meyer et al. 2018; Luo et al.
159 2023). Moreover, this method was applied in the study site for evaluating the tree age influence
160 (Lucas-Borja and Delgado-Baquerizo 2019) as well as the impacts of wildfire and post-fire

161 mulching (Carmona-Yáñez et al. 2023) on ecosystem multifunctionality in semi-arid pine forests
 162 of the same environment.

163

164 Table 2 - Groups of categories of ecosystem multifunctionality, and related properties and
 165 indicators to characterize ecosystem multifunctionality of the four forest stands in the study area
 166 (“Los Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest, Castilla La Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain).

167

| Categories of ecosystem multifunctionality | Properties | Indicators |
|---|----------------------------------|---|
| Ecosystem structure | Soil cover | Rock, vegetation, bare soil, and dead wood coverage |
| | Plant diversity | Number of plant species (richness) |
| Ecosystem properties | Physico-chemical soil properties | Soil texture |
| | | Bulk density |
| | | pH |
| | | EC |
| | | Carbonates |
| Ecosystem functions | Nutrient cycling | Total carbon |
| | | Total nitrogen |
| | | C/N |
| | | Phosphorous |
| | | Water soluble carbon |
| | Belowground carbon stocks | Basal respiration |
| | | Organic carbon |
| | Waste decomposition | Dehydrogenase activity |
| | | β -glucosidase activity |
| | | Urease activity |
| | | Phosphatase activity |
| | | Polyphenol oxydase activity |

| | | |
|--|-----------------|-----------------------------|
| | | Bacterial biomass |
| | | Fungal biomass |
| | | Gram ⁺ biomass |
| | | Gram ⁻ biomass |
| | Wood production | Tree basal area |
| | | Mean tree age |
| | | Tree density |
| | | Tree height |
| | Water cycle | Soil water repellency |
| | | Soil hydraulic conductivity |

168

169

170 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

171

172 A one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate the effect of forest management and stand composition
 173 on EMF. A *post-hoc* test using Tukey's Honest Significant Differences (HSD) was applied to
 174 identify significant differences between pairs of forest stands. Then, a correlation analysis among
 175 categories of ecosystem multifunctionality was carried out using Spearman's coefficients.
 176 Moreover, a Principal Coordinates analysis (PCoA) based on Euclidean distance was performed,
 177 in order to evaluate whether and to what extent forest composition and management alter the
 178 multivariate space of ecosystem multifunctionality. In more detail, all indicators of ecosystem
 179 functions were normalized with z-score before computing the Euclidean distance. The first two
 180 axes of PCoA were used to visualize the differences in multiple ecosystem functions between
 181 forest stands. A significance level of $P < 0.05$ was considered throughout the statistical analyses.
 182 All statistical analyses were conducted using the R (version 4.0.3) (Team 2013).

183

184

185 **3. RESULTS**

186

187 ***3.1. Effects of forest management and stand composition on ecosystem multifunctionality***

188

189 Regarding the ecosystem structure and properties, both forest management and stand
190 composition altered plant diversity (always significantly lower compared to SBPC, with the
191 lowest value measured in SBPA). In contrast, almost all soil covers were not influenced by these
192 factors, with the exception of vegetation cover. The vegetation cover was significantly lower in
193 SBHO than the other stands. It is also worth mentioning that, for the reference stand, both rock
194 and bare soil were practically absent (Table 3).

195

196 Soil properties significantly changed between pairs of stands, as response to forest management
197 and stand composition. In more detail, we found that: (i) in some cases, soil structure was
198 significantly different between pairs of stands (i.e., content of sand between mixed and pure
199 stands, silt between the managed and unmanaged pure stands, and clay between the unmanaged
200 pure stand and one of the mixed stand, SBHO, on one side, and the unmanaged and pure stand);
201 (ii) pH was significantly different among all stands, SBPC and SBSJ showing the lowest and
202 highest values, respectively; (iii) the highest bulk density was found in SBSJ, while the lowest in
203 SBPC, the other two stands showed intermediate but significantly different values; (iv)
204 carbonates were significantly higher in SBPA and lower in SBSJ compared to SBPC, while
205 SBHO showed similar values as the control stand (Table 3).

206

207 Concerning the individual ecosystem functions of the four forest stands, the indicators of the soil
208 enzymatic and microbial activities that were related to waste decomposition were higher in the
209 mixed stands compared to SBPA and SBPC, the latter showing the lowest values. Soil organic
210 carbon and basal respiration were the highest in SBPC, which, however, showed the lowest
211 indicators associated to the water cycle (soil hydraulic conductivity and water repellency). No
212 unambiguous trends among the studied stand types (managed vs. unmanaged and pure vs.
213 mixed) were observed for the nutrient cycling, although SBPC showed the highest total carbon
214 and C/N of soil. This stand was also characterized by the highest wood production, mainly
215 associated to the indicators of tree size and age (Table 4).

216 Based on these values, the ecosystem functions were calculated and compared among the stands
 217 (Figure 2).

218

219 Table 3 - Mean values \pm standard error (n = 3) of indicators of ecosystem structure (soil covers
 220 and plant diversity) and physico-chemical properties of soil composing ecosystem
 221 multifunctionality (EMF) for different forest stands in the study area (“Los Palancares y Tierra
 222 Muerta” forest, Castilla La Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain).

223

| Indicator | | Forest stands | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| | | SBPA | SBSJ | SBHO | SBPC |
| | | <i>Ecosystem structure</i> | | | |
| Plant diversity | | 5.33 \pm 0.88a | 6.67 \pm 0.33ab | 7.33 \pm 0.33b | 12.00 \pm 0.58c |
| Soil covers | Rock (%) | 3.33 \pm 3.33a | 13.33 \pm 8.82a | 13.33 \pm 3.33a | 0 \pm 0a |
| | Vegetation (%) | 53.33 \pm 6.67b | 50.00 \pm 5.77b | 26.67 \pm 6.67a | 70.00 \pm 5.77b |
| | Bare soil (%) | 13.33 \pm 8.82a | 23.33 \pm 14.53a | 13.33 \pm 6.67a | 0 \pm 0a |
| | Dead wood (%) | 30 \pm 11.55a | 13.33 \pm 13.33a | 46.67 \pm 14.57a | 30 \pm 5.77a |
| | | <i>Ecosystem properties</i> | | | |
| Soil properties | Sand (%) | 76.0 \pm 1.15a | 84.0 \pm 1.15b | 71.0 \pm 1.15c | 76.0 \pm 1.15a |
| | Silt (%) | 8.0 \pm 1.15a | 6.0 \pm 1.15ab | 9.0 \pm 1.15b | 12.0 \pm 1.15b |
| | Clay (%) | 16.0 \pm 1.15a | 10.0 \pm 1.15b | 20.0 \pm 1.15c | 12.0 \pm 1.15b |
| | pH | 6.82 \pm 0.09a | 7.18 \pm 0.09b | 6.53 \pm 0.09c | 5.79 \pm 0.09d |
| | Carbonates (%) | 1.97 \pm 0.03a | 0.17 \pm 0.03b | 0.93 \pm 0.03c | 0.86 \pm 0.03c |
| | Bulk density (g/cm ³) | 0.83 \pm 0.02a | 1.61 \pm 0.07b | 1.31 \pm 0.11c | 0.53 \pm 0.01d |

224 Notes: SBPA = pure and managed stand of Spanish black pine; SBSJ = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and
 225 Spanish juniper; SBHO = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and holm oak; SBPC = pure and unmanaged stand of
 226 Spanish black pine. Different letters indicate significant differences among forest stands after post-hoc Tukey's
 227 Honest Significant Differences tests.

228

229 Table 4 - Mean values \pm standard error (n = 3) of indicators of waste decomposition, belowground carbon stocks, water cycle, nutrient
 230 cycling and wood production composing ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF) for different forest stands in the study area (“Los
 231 Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest, Castilla La Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain).

232

| Ecosystem functions | Indicator | Forest stands | | | |
|---------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| | | SBPA | SBSJ | SBHO | SBPC |
| Waste decomposition | Dehydrogenase ($\mu\text{mol INTF g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$) | 3.10 \pm 0.26ab | 2.44 \pm 0.26b | 3.32 \pm 0.26a | 3.45 \pm 0.26a |
| | β -glucosidase ($\mu\text{mol PNF g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$) | 2.35 \pm 0.01a | 6.97 \pm 0.42b | 8.69 \pm 0.23c | 2.40 \pm 0.04a |
| | Acid-phosphatase ($\mu\text{mol PNF g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$) | 0.61 \pm 0.08a | 0.78 \pm 0.08ab | 0.94 \pm 0.08b | 0.86 \pm 0.08b |
| | Polyphenol oxidase ($\mu\text{mol mol g}^{-1} \text{ SOC h}^{-1}$) | 42.60 \pm 0.57a | 51.60 \pm 0.58b | 37.94 \pm 0.12c | 9.43 \pm 0.29d |
| | Urease ($\mu\text{mol N-NH}_4^+ \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ soil h}^{-1}$) | 2.85 \pm 0.52a | 6.17 \pm 0.52b | 6.70 \pm 0.52b | 4.27 \pm 0.52a |
| | Gram ⁺ biomass (nmol g ⁻¹) | 2.74 \pm 0.06a | 3.04 \pm 0.09b | 1.28 \pm 0.03c | 1.13 \pm 0.04c |
| | Gram ⁻ biomass (nmol g ⁻¹) | 0.44 \pm 0.01ab | 0.49 \pm 0.04a | 0.47 \pm 0.03ab | 0.38 \pm 0.02b |

| | | | | | |
|------------------------------|--|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| | Fungi biomass (nmol g ⁻¹) | 2.34±0.12a | 2.18±0.11a | 2.30±0.16a | 1.40±0.06b |
| | Bacteria biomass (nmol g ⁻¹) | 3.17±0.06a | 3.53±0.12b | 1.75±0.05c | 1.51±0.06c |
| Belowground carbon stocks | Basal respiration (mgC-CO ₂ kg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹) | 48.59±2.34a | 55.30±2.34a | 79.53±2.34b | 82.93±2.34b |
| | Organic carbon (%) | 10.23±0.8a | 10.10±0.59a | 14.63±0.58b | 15.30±1.12b |
| Water cycle | Soil hydraulic conductivity (mm/h ⁻¹) | 0.00008±0.00002a | 0.00049±0.00022ab | 0.00015±0.00001ab | 0.000002±0.00000a |
| | Soil water repellency (WDPT, s) | 49.33±2.96a | 119.28±2.05b | 2.42±0.36c | 7.23±0.23c |
| Nutrient cycling | Total carbon (%) | 10.23±0.80a | 10.10±0.59a | 14.63±0.58b | 15.30±1.12b |
| | Total nitrogen (%) | 0.44±0.04a | 0.58±0.02b | 0.80±0.06c | 0.52±0.03a |
| | Phosphorous (ppm) | 118.19±1.73a | 10.03±1.73b | 55.99±1.73c | 51.48±1.73c |
| | C:N | 28.61±1.33a | 17.71±0.37b | 19.90±1.60b | 31.23±0.70a |
| | Water soluble carbon (mg/kg) | 457.35±14.57ab | 617.33±81.70b | 824.88±73.71b | 813.91±46.85b |
| Wood | Tree basal area | 31.87±2.14a | 23.10±1.65b | 24.73±1.83b | 51.27±2.23c |

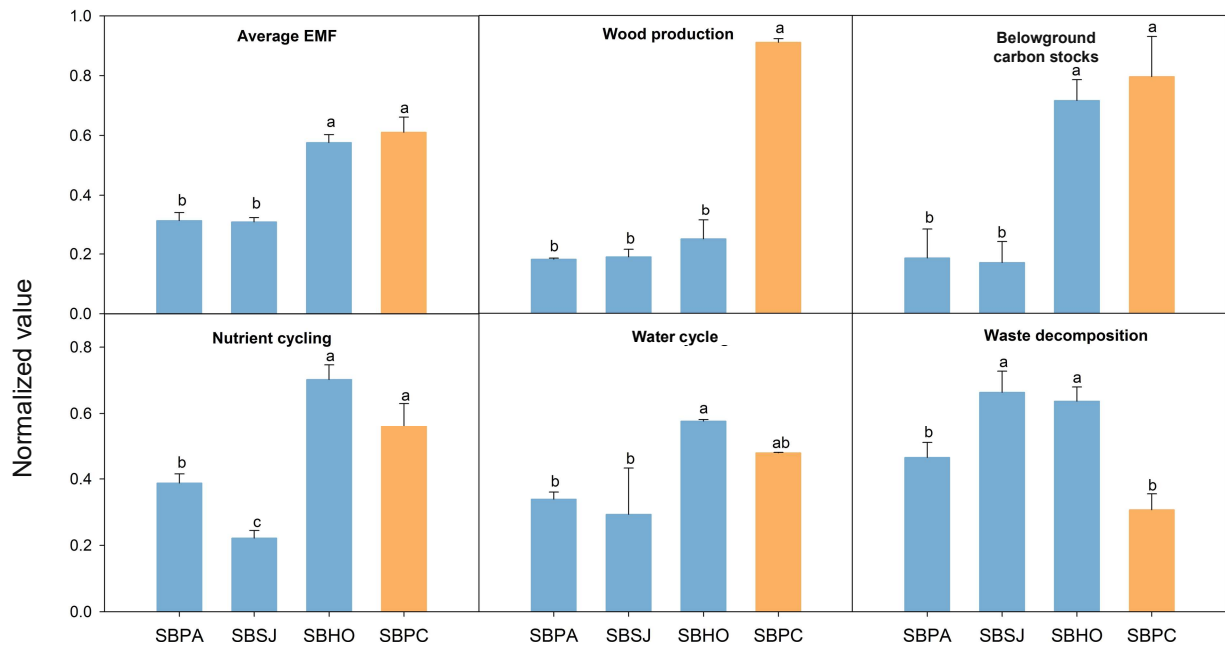
| | | | | | |
|------------|---------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| | (m ² /ha) | | | | |
| production | Tree height (m) | 21.67±0.67a | 22.33±0.67a | 23.33±1.67a | 40.33±0.88b |
| | Mean tree age (years) | 99.67±4.67a | 97.33±3.48a | 98.00±2.65a | 143.00±5.57b |
| | Tree density (number trees per ha) | 891.67±55.71a | 1006.23±2.85b | 1061.33±33.84c | 1205.00±8.33d |

233 Notes: SBPA = pure and managed stand of Spanish black pine; SBSJ = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and Spanish juniper; SBHO = mixed stand of Spanish
234 black pine and holm oak; SBPC = pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine. Different letters indicate significant differences among forest stands after
235 post-hoc Tukey's Honest Significant Differences tests.

236

237 Among these ecosystem functions, compared to the reference stand (SBPC plots), the average
 238 EMF was significantly lower in SBPA and SBSJ, and similar in SBHO. These differences must
 239 be associated to the individual functions synthesized by EMF. In more detail, while the same
 240 changes as for the average EMF was detected in belowground carbon stocks, wood production
 241 was significantly lower in SBPA, SBSJ and SBHO compared to the SBPC plots. Nutrient cycling
 242 significantly decreased in SBPA and SBSJ, SBHO plots showing similar values as the SBPC
 243 plots. In contrast, water cycle of the managed stand (SBPA) and mixed forests (SBSJ and
 244 SBHO) was similar as the pure and unmanaged stand (SBPC). Finally, waste decomposition was
 245 significantly higher in SBHO and SBSJ plots, while the SBPA stand did not show significant
 246 differences, when these stands were compared to SBPC (Figure 2).

247



248

249 Figure 2 – Mean \pm standard error of functions composing ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF)
 250 for different forest stands in the study area (“Los Palancares y Tierra Muerta” forest, Castilla La
 251 Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain). Legend: SBPA = pure and managed stand of Spanish black pine; SBSJ =
 252 mixed stand of Spanish black pine and Spanish juniper; SBHO = mixed stand of Spanish black pine and holm oak;
 253 SBPC = pure and unmanaged stand of Spanish black pine. Different letters indicate significant differences among
 254 forest stands after post-hoc Tukey’s Honest Significant Differences tests.

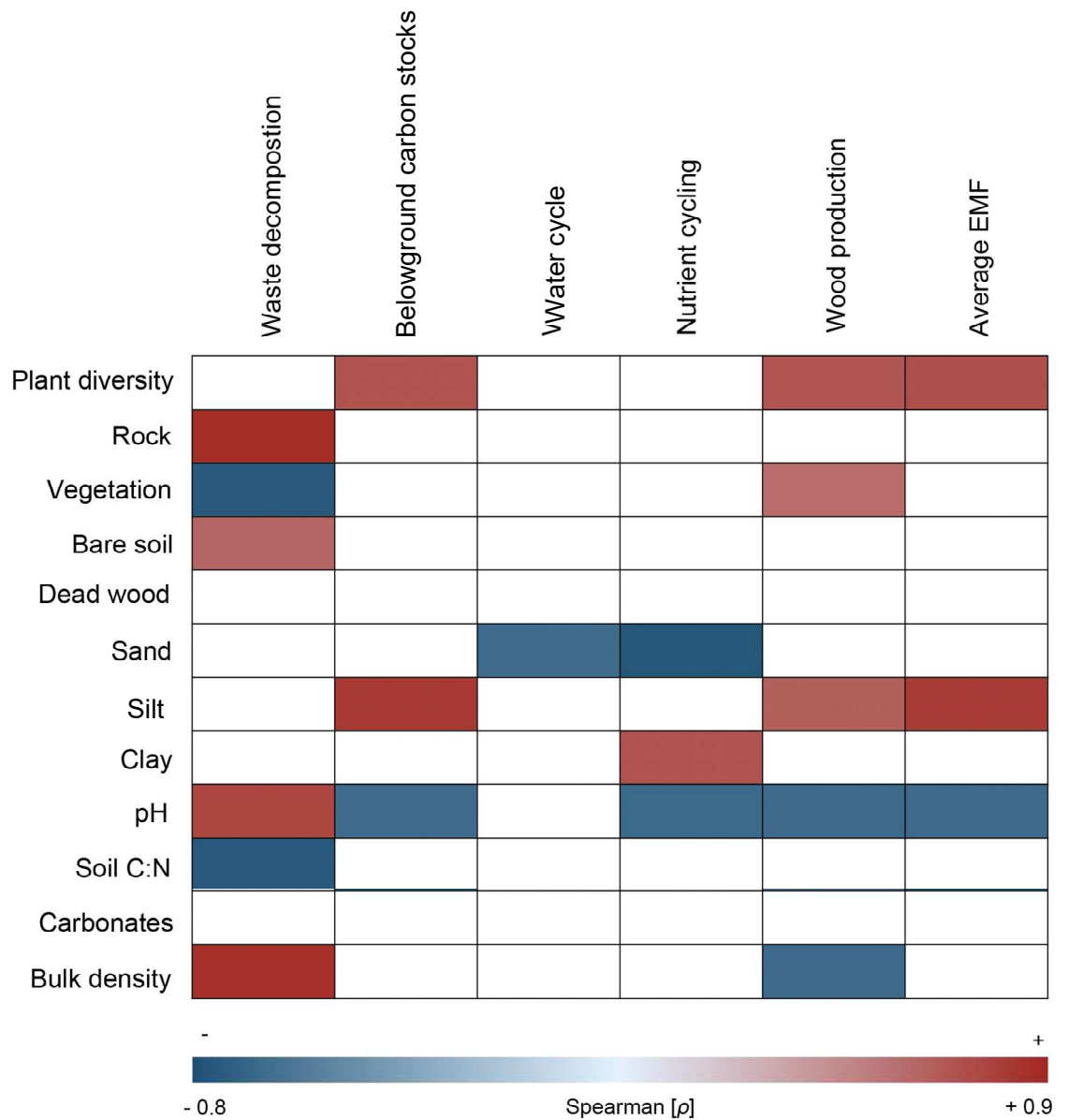
255

256 ***3.2. Associations between ecosystem multifunctionality, and ecosystem properties and***
257 ***structure***

258

259 The correlation analysis showed significant Spearman's coefficients between several pairs of
260 indicators of ecosystem properties, structure, functions, and EMF (Figure 3). In more detail, the
261 highest positive correlations were found between waste decomposition on one side, and rock
262 cover and bulk density on the other side as well as average EMF and silt content ($r = 0.9$, $p <$
263 0.05 in all cases). The pairs waste decomposition on one side, vs. soil C:N and vegetation on the
264 other side, as well as nutrient cycling vs. sand content ($r = -0.8$, $p < 0.05$ in all cases) showed the
265 highest negative (as absolute values) and significant Spearman's coefficients (Figure 3).

266



267

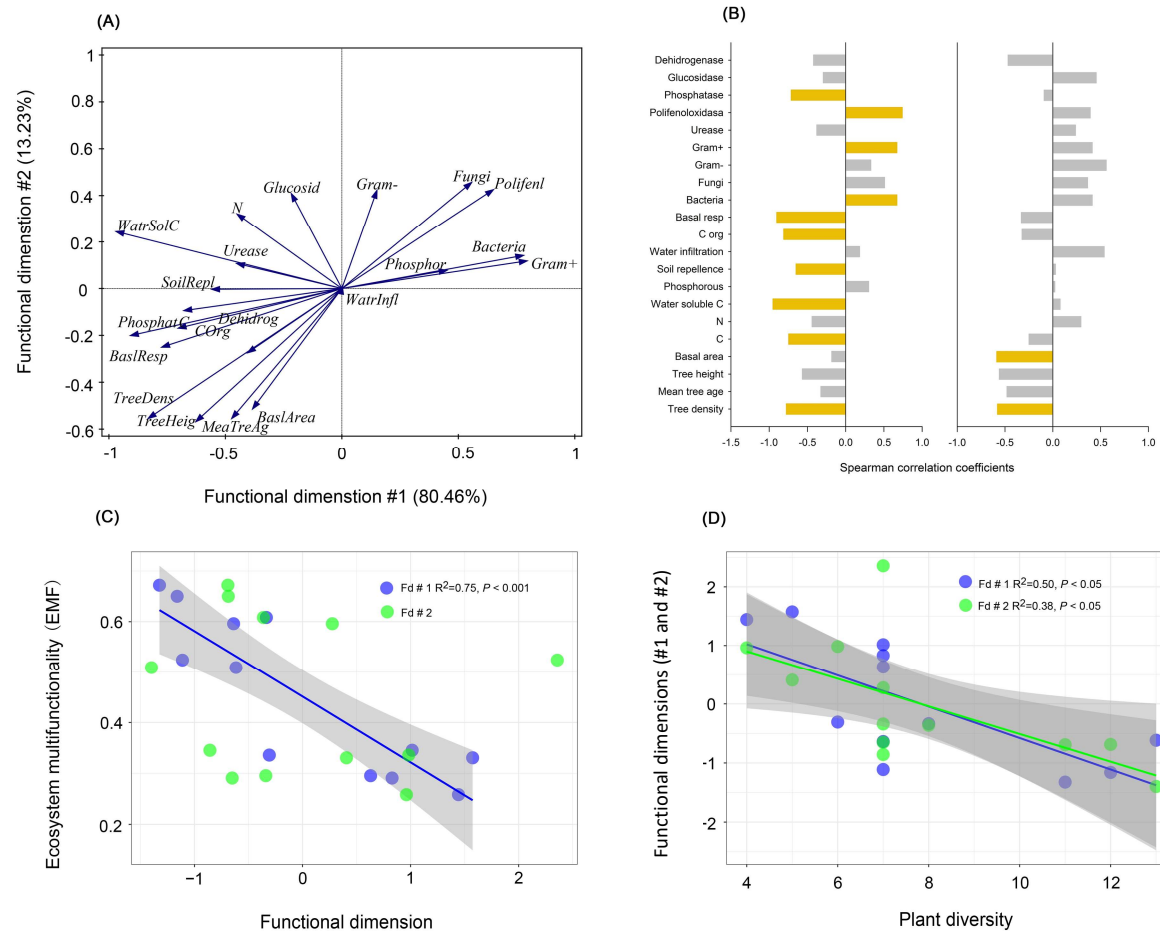
268 Figure 3 - Correlation matrix reporting Spearman's coefficients between pairs of indicators of
 269 ecosystem multifunctionality (in the rows), and ecosystem functions and EMF (ecosystem
 270 multifunctionality) (in the columns) for different forest stands in the study area ("Los Palancares
 271 y Tierra Muerta" forest, Castilla La Mancha, Central-Eastern Spain). The colour palette relates to the
 272 values of Spearman's coefficients. Significance levels: * $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.001$.

273

274 **3.3. Multidimensional analysis of ecosystem multifunctionality**

275

276 The PCoA showed that, in the space of multiple ecosystem functions, the first two axes of
277 variation (functional dimensions) explained more than 90% of the multi-dimensional functional
278 space variation (Figure 4A). The functional dimensions #1 and #2 explained 80.5% and 13.2%,
279 respectively, of this variation. The first functional dimension (#1) was noticeably influenced by
280 some indicators of waste decomposition (bacteria and Gram⁺ biomass, phosphatase and
281 polyphenol oxydase activities), water cycle (soil water repellency), belowground carbon stocks
282 (soil basal respiration and organic carbon), nutrient cycling (total and water-soluble carbon) and
283 wood production (tree density). Tree density influenced also the second axis together with tree
284 basal area (Figure 4B). Of all indicators, only bacteria and Gram⁺ biomass, and polyphenol
285 oxydase activity had positive loadings on the functional dimension #1 (Figure 4B). Moreover,
286 EMF was significantly and positively correlated to the functional dimension #1 ($r^2 = 0.75$, $p <$
287 0.001), while no correlation was found with the functional dimension #2 (Figure 4C). Finally,
288 EMF was negatively and significantly correlated with the functional dimension #1 ($r^2 = 0.50$, $p <$
289 0.05), while the correlation (again negative and significant) to the functional dimension #2 was
290 lower ($r^2 = 0.38$, $p < 0.05$) (Figure 4D).



291

292 Figure 4 - Unconstrained principal coordinate analyses (PCoA) with Bray–Curtis distance analysis of multiple ecosystem functions
 293 (A); bar plots of the Spearman correlation coefficients between multiple ecosystem functions and functional dimensions (B);
 294 relationships between functional dimensions (Fd #1 and #2, each grouping the significant related variables of Figure 4B) and
 295 ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF, C), and plant diversity (D). *Orange bars evidence the correlations that are considered as significant ($p < 0.05$).*

4. DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Effects of stand composition on forest multifunctionality

About the ecosystem structure, stand composition has been generally acknowledged as a crucial factor influencing plant diversity, and functional composition (Lucas-Borja and Delgado-Baquerizo 2019). The significant influence of stand composition on plant diversity found in this study is in line with previous studies stating that forest stand structure is a successful functional strategy (Lucas-Borja and Delgado-Baquerizo 2019; Wang et al. 2022), since, according to the present study, this function is left undisturbed. Moreover, the low impact of stand composition on ground cover properties is somehow expected, since the whole forest have been left undisturbed for more than 100 years, resulting in similar microclimatic conditions, parental rock material and forest species.

The significant changes found in ecosystem properties due to stand composition were presumably due to the fact that the associations of two forest species were able to alter soil structure (with slight but somewhat significant changes in sand or clay contents), and mainly some important physico-chemical properties, such as pH, C:N ratio and bulk density. Other studies have analyzed the effects of stand composition on soil properties. For instance, (Hou et al. 2019) showed that the changes in soil physical properties are dependent on tree stand types, since many abiotic and biotic factors can describe the effects of vegetation composition on soil processes and properties. The reasons for changes in the analyzed soil properties between stands with different composition may be several, such as the different root density and litter chemistry of pure stands in comparison to mixed forest stands. In general, the litter quality of tree species influences soil properties, providing suitable conditions for an increase in organic matter (Kooch et al. 2017). Moreover, the decomposition rate of litter may be variable under different stand composition and forest management, thus producing different amounts of acidic substances that accumulate in the topsoil at the different forest stands (Wang et al. 2012), and therefore the significant changes in pH among all stands detected in this study. The studies of Kooch (2012) and Kooch et al. (2017) support the theory that the litter pH of some species has an acidic condition with high C:N ratios and C, which affects the pH and C:N of the soil. The tree species can influence the soil properties through changes in pH and carbon exudates (Prescott and Grayston 2013; Thoms and Gleixner 2013; Heděnc et al. 2023). Moreover, the differentiated organic matter supply to soil due to the different stand composition may be a reason for the different bulk density, resulting in differences in water-

holding capacity, soil nutrient storage, and gas penetration across the studied forest stands (Yue et al. 2017; Hou et al. 2019).

About the studied ecosystem functions, forest stand structure was a significant driver of waste decomposition and wood production. In more detail, the variability in waste decomposition due to stand structure, was mainly due to the higher activities of some enzymes (namely β -glucosidase, polyphenol oxydase and urease) in mixed stands compared to the pure forests. This influence may be attributed to differences in litter quality, root exudates, herbivory and nutrient uptake due to the different species (Grayston and Prescott 2005). The increases in the Gram⁺ and Gram⁻ biomass in SBSJ stands may have a secondary role on waste decomposition, and these increases should presumably due to the higher soil water content, which promotes the relative abundance of those bacteria (Lange et al. 2014; Chen et al. 2019). This result shows that forest composition plays beneficial effects on ecosystem functioning by influencing some soil microbial communities (associated with enzyme contents) and their activity. However, different tree stands do not equally affect all soil enzymes (Wang et al. 2012). High-quality litter layers are generally beneficial for most soil microbial communities (Bandyopadhyaya et al. 2002), and biodiversity is known to be relatively strongly related to available energy resources and essential nutrients (Bedano et al. 2005). Fungal and bacterial community composition (in terms of abundance and diversity) are closely related to tree composition, and microbial communities associated with mixed species are more active (Khlifa et al. 2017). These results indicate that soil fungal and bacterial communities play an important role in maintaining multiple ecosystem functions in different forest stands (Xu et al. 2021). It is also worth mentioning the clear association between waste decomposition on one side and some important physico-chemical properties of soil (pH, C:N and bulk density) on the other side, as shown by the correlation analysis. This association is in line with other studies, which have demonstrated that, in different forest stands, microbial activity is noticeably affected by variations in available nutrients, particularly carbon, nitrogen, and soil chemistry among the studied forest stands (Cheng et al. 2013; Allan et al. 2015; Xu et al. 2021).

The lack of significance differences in wood production found in the pure stand compared to the other mixed forest was ascribed to the same tree height and age among the stands, despite the different basal area and tree density. The low impact of growth of basal area (Hein and Dhôte 2006), stem biomass (Thurm et al. 2016), stem volume (Pretzsch et al. 2015) or total above-ground biomass (Pretzsch et al. 2010) on wood production may be surprising at a first sight. However, literature is generally quite contrasting on this aspect, as stated by Zhang et al. (2012) and Zeller et

al. (2017), showing that pure and mixed forest structures can increase or decrease wood production. Presumably, in our experimental stands, the growth conditions (resource supply and environmental factors) of individual trees were highly dependent on the surrounding forest structure (Pretzsch 2014).

The effects of stand composition on the remaining ecosystem functions (nutrient cycling, belowground carbon stocks and water cycle) were dependent on the specific tree species. Compared to the reference forest, the significant reduction in nutrient cycling function in the SBSJ stand may result from the significantly lower soil organic, water soluble and total carbon contents of this stand. These variations may be due to the differences in the quantity and quality of root and litter inputs to forest soil between the tree species, and this played a noticeable influence on nutrient availability, enzymatic and microbial activities and biogeochemical cycles. The influence of stand composition on these processes through differences in the quantity and quality of litter due to variations in tree species was also acknowledged by Bell et al. (2015). This effect may be directly associated with the differences in tree and other plant species composition between overstory and understory in stands (Turbé et al. 2010; Liu et al. 2019). In addition, different root patterns due to the variable stand composition of the mixed stands (i.e., in the SBHO stand) may be another reason for the changes in nutrient cycling, determining differences in the distribution of carbon in soil profiles (Spielvogel et al. 2014). Depending on root depth and distribution, the production of organic carbon by fine root turnover and exudates are the major entry routes in mineral soils (Rothe et al. 2002; Rumpel and Kögel-Knabner 2011).

Belowground carbon stocks significantly decreased in the SBSJ stand compared to the pure forest. In that mixed stand, both basal respiration and organic matter content was significantly lower in the topsoil. This variability could be related to the fact that the organic matter content in forest soils depends and derives primarily from above-ground litter and forest vegetation biomass (Shao et al. 2017), which, in turn, can be attributed to a complex set of factors affecting soil respiration - such as litter quality, root density, and respiratory activity - and to the environment, regarding soil moisture and temperature (Vesterdal et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2023). Higher soil respiration in forest stands is due to favorable conditions for microbial activity, including an adequate supply of substrate, especially in the aboveground soil layer. Moreover, the high coefficient of correlation between belowground carbon stocks and plant diversity indirectly confirms the influence of stand composition on this ecosystem function. It is also worth mentioning that, when calculating multifunctionality, the aboveground carbon was excluded as indicator of belowground carbon stock

from the analyses, due to the lack of relevant data. However, this is not a limitation of this study, since an indirect indication of this ecosystem feature was incorporated in wood production. Furthermore, the same indicators and functions were measured and compared among all selected plots and stands, and it is important to avoid considering correlated indicators when assessing EMF.

In spite of the non-significant differences in water cycle between pure and mixed stands, the presence of holm oak (SBHO) may have significantly increased this function compared to the stand with juniper (SBSJ). Excluding the impacts of water infiltration, whose differences among different forest stands were not significant, this effect may be due to soil water repellency, which is variable among stands with different composition, and especially juniper is able to increase soil hydrophobicity under semi-arid conditions (Zema et al. 2021b).

4.2. Effects of management on forest multifunctionality

Forestry operations (e.g., wood harvesting, soil compaction) noticeably reduced the plant diversity in the managed stand compared to the reference forest, although without any alterations in the soil surface conditions. In line with our study, Heydari et al. (2021) found higher species richness and plant diversity (in terms of evenness) in old and unmanaged forests. The beneficial aspects (e.g., economic production, reduced fire susceptibility, increased accessibility) and the negative impacts (e.g., increased soil compaction, higher runoff and erosion, and short-term loss of habitat) of tree harvesting have been debated for years (Gomez et al. 2002). In this regard, forest management may modify below-canopy microclimatic conditions by changing the structural features of a stand (Ehbrecht et al. 2019; Blumröder et al. 2021). Beaudet et al. (2004) also showed that frequent cutting and removal of dead wood increase solar radiation and change microclimatic conditions in forest areas. Therefore, competition for resources may increase exclusion between species, leading to a reduction in species diversity (Wilson and Tilman 1993).

In contrast to what found for soil covers, significant variations in all the studied physico-chemical properties of soil between managed and unmanaged stands were found. As widely demonstrated, machinery used during forest operations may generate changes in soil, such as soil compaction, thus reducing size and continuity of soil macropores through which roots preferentially grow (Lucas-Borja et al. 2020). Therefore, these changes in soil properties after using machinery in forest harvesting operations may lead to modifications in plant species that better adapt to compacted soil, and in soil properties, discriminating managed and unmanaged forest stands.

Compared to the reference stand, forest management significantly influenced wood production, which significantly decreased in the managed stand in comparison to the unmanaged forest. It is important highlighting that this study did not measure the wood extracted during harvesting operations, which, in sum to remaining trees, might generate the same or even higher wood production in managed stands compared to unmanaged stands. Therefore, for forest management, we ascribe the changes in this ecosystem function to the differences in basal area, stem biomass and volume and to total above-ground biomass.

The significant decrease in nutrient cycling due to forest management compared to the unmanaged stand should be explained by the lower total and organic carbon as well as phosphorous contents in the managed forest. Here, this lower carbon content also impacted on the decreased belowground carbon stocks. In terms of biomass, it is worthy noting that increased tree density and basal area may generate a parallel increase in carbon pools and nutrient content in soil, as showed by the indicators of nutrient cycling function. As demonstrated by Ushio et al. (2010) and Lucas-Borja et al. (2010), forest management not only can alter physico-chemical properties of forest soils and quantity and quality of substrate, but also more directly impacts soil microbial community. In our study this effect of forest management on waste decomposition was not noticed, presumably due to similar patterns in many enzymatic activities between the managed and unmanaged stands, although significant differences were noticed in the composition of bacteria and fungi.

Finally, the absence of impacts of forest management on water cycle detected in our study is expected, since the water infiltration and soil water repellency were similar between managed and unmanaged stands. The differences in soil hydraulic conductivity are usually attributed to a combination of soil properties and covers (Doerr et al. 2000; Cawson et al. 2012), and the soil covers were comparable between managed and unmanaged stands, in line to other studies in the same forest area (Zema et al. 2021b).

4.3. Effects of stand composition and management on overall forest multifunctionality

The average EMF was significantly affected by forest management (leading to a decrease in the managed stand compared to reference forest), while stand composition was an important EMF driver only for one mixed stand. Therefore, the results of this study suggest that multifunctional properties of Mediterranean forests primarily vary with forestry operations (which highlights the

importance of sustainable management plans to optimise the EMF of semi-arid forests, as those of Cuenca Mountains and, more in general, Spanish Black Pine forest stands), and secondarily with forest mixing. About the latter result, similar findings were reported by Lucas-Borja et al. (2016), who stated that the characteristic and functional forest complexity leads to larger litterfall, soil organic matter accumulation, and nutrient content on the forest floor in different tree stands, consequently favoring the nutrient and carbon cycling functions. In line with our result, numerous studies have focused on the effect of terrestrial plant diversity on multifunctionality (Bradford et al. 2014; López-Rojo et al. 2019; Lucas-Borja and Delgado-Baquerizo 2019; Liu et al. 2022).

It is also important noting that the noticeable negative correlation between EMF and the first functional dimension #1 (the latter being associated to some indicators of waste decomposition, belowground carbon stocks, nutrient cycling and wood production by negative loadings) of PCoA reveals that EMF increases with bacteria biomass, phosphatase, basal respiration, organic, total and water-soluble carbon, and tree density. This means that forest management should be targeted to forestry operation that avoid decreases in microbial biomass, enzymatic activities, organic matter and nutrient contents of soil, and adopt an optimal tree density, limiting indiscriminate cutting and forest logging. Finally, the significant negative correlation between EMF and plant diversity highlights the essential role of tree species richness and evenness on those ecosystem functions.

5. Conclusions

The comparison of ecosystem structure, properties and functions as well as EMF between pairs of Mediterranean forest stands, characterized by different tree composition or subjected to management, showed that, regarding ecosystem structure, both forest management and stand composition altered plant diversity but not soil covers (except the vegetation cover), and, about ecosystem properties, soil characteristics significantly changed between pairs of stands (especially texture, pH and bulk density), as responses to forest management and stand composition.

In reply to the second research question, the study showed that, among the ecosystem functions, forest stand composition was a significant driver of waste decomposition and wood production, while its effect on the remaining ecosystem functions (nutrient cycling, belowground carbon stocks and water cycle) depends on the specific tree species. The forest management significantly influenced wood production, belowground carbon stocks, nutrient cycling, but not water cycle and waste decomposition.

About the first research question, this study demonstrated that, in Spanish Black Pine stands under semi-arid conditions, EMF can be significantly reduced by management compared to the unmanaged forest, and can be similar or different between pure and mixed stands according to the specific species. More in general, the study suggests that the multiple functions played by Mediterranean forest ecosystems primarily vary with management operations, and secondarily with stand composition. However, a forest management with mixed species may have a non-negative or even a positive effect on overall EMF, and this indicates that management operations should be targeted to increase plant diversity (for instance, reforestation with mixed species, preferably using Fagaceae rather than Cupressaceae with Pinaceae, as shown in this study). The essential role of forestry operations on EMF emphasises the caution of a suitable management for preserving the important functions of the Mediterranean forest ecosystems, which are crucial hotspots for global biodiversity conservation and climate change mitigation.

Overall, this study contributes to better understand how a Spanish Black Pine forest, one of the most widespread forest species in the Iberian Peninsula, functions under different management operations and stand compositions. This knowledge gives landscape planners working in semi-arid conditions more insight about those practices and silvicultural layouts that may support the multiple functions and services provided by delicate and endangered ecosystems, such as the Mediterranean forests. Moreover, this study, revealing the effects of forest tree composition and management on ecosystem functioning, provides a scientific basis for predicting community dynamics and ecosystem functionality in semi-arid forests. However, much research is needed to explore the ecosystem functioning under other forest management techniques and different stand compositions.

DECLARATIONS

Conflict of interest statement

The authors have no relevant financial, non-financial or competing interests to disclose.

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Data availability statement

Data will be made available upon specific request tot he authors.

Acknowledgements and funding

Thanks are due for the financial supports from PID2021-126946OB-100/MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033 project as well as from FEDER (Una manera de hacer Europa), TED2021-12945B-41/MCIN/AEI/10.13039/501100011033/Unión Europea NextGenerationEU/PRTR.

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