

Research frontiers for improving our understanding of drought-induced tree and forest mortality

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66 Summary

67	•	Accumulating evidence highlights increased mortality risks for trees during severe
68		drought, particularly under warmer temperatures and increasing vapour pressure deficit
69		(VPD). Resulting forest die-off events have severe consequences for ecosystem services,
70		biophysical and biogeochemical land-atmosphere processes.
71	•	Despite advances in monitoring, modelling and experimental studies of the causes and
72		consequences of tree death from individual tree to ecosystem and global scale, a
73		general mechanistic understanding and realistic predictions of drought mortality under
74		future climate conditions are still lacking.
75	•	We update a global tree mortality map and present a roadmap to a more holistic
76		understanding of forest mortality across scales. We highlight priority research frontiers
77		that promote (1) new avenues for research on key tree ecophysiological responses to
78		drought, (2) scaling from the tree/plot level to the ecosystem and region, (3)
79		improvements of mortality risk predictions based on both empirical and mechanistic
80		insights, and (4) a global monitoring network of forest mortality.
81	•	In light of recent and anticipated large forest die-off events such a research agenda is
82		timely and needed to achieve scientific understanding for realistic predictions for
83		drought-induced tree mortality. The implementation of a sustainable network will
84		require support by stakeholders and political authorities at the international level.
85		
86	Ke	ywords: tree death, carbon-water cycling, insects and pathogens, dynamic vegetation

87 models, monitoring network

88 1. Introduction

89	Forests cover about 30% of the terrestrial surface of the globe and annually sequester about
90	25% of the CO_2 emitted by human activities (Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2011). In forested regions, trees are
91	the dominating vegetation and structure ecosystem patterns and processes from the stand
92	level to entire landscapes. However, ongoing global warming, in concert with episodic
93	droughts, heat waves and associated increased VPD (Breshears et al., 2013; Eamus et al.,
94	2013; Ruehr <i>et al.</i> , 2014), has been causing elevated levels of both chronic and acute stress
95	often leading to tree mortality across large forested regions of the globe (e.g., Dai, 2012). By
96	contrast, recent studies suggest that increasing specific humidity and elevated atmospheric
97	CO_2 concentration may partially offset mortality risk from drought and elevated
98	temperature (Liu et al., 2017). Nevertheless, periods of drought and heat stress often
99	interact with other forest disturbances like fire and windthrow (Brando et al., 2014) and can
100	significantly amplify the incidence and severity of biological disturbances such as outbreaks
101	of damaging insects and diseases (Williams et al., 2013). Hence a better mechanistic
102	representation of the diverse processes that drive tree mortality under drought is needed to
103	improve predictions of forest responses to projected climate changes (McDowell et al.,
104	2015b) and to assess the fate of forests in coming decades.

Tree death is a challenging issue (see Box 1, Franklin *et al.*, 1987) and a major thrust of
research has investigated drought-induced tree mortality mechanisms, specifically testing
whether trees die from hydraulic failure (HF), carbon (C) starvation (CS), biotic attack or
from an interaction of those factors (McDowell *et al.*, 2008). However, despite many
investigations, it has become apparent that the current understanding of tree physiological
responses to drought and heat remains quite insufficient and further background

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111 knowledge is clearly needed to generate realistic projections of forest mortality events 112 under rapid climate change (Hartmann et al., 2015). For example, we currently do not have 113 a predictive framework to answer 1) which species will be more sensitive to a given drought at regional or global scales, 2) which individuals within a population will be more vulnerable, 114 and 3) which quantitative thresholds of physiological parameters can be used to predict 115 forest mortality under future climate scenarios. Simple physiological thresholds have been 116 117 difficult to determine (Adams et al., 2017) and lack of progress emphasizes that our current 118 research agenda must be rethought. Furthermore, attempts to predict tree mortality at 119 specific sites have been largely inconclusive and suggest major limitations in current models 120 (McDowell et al., 2013b), possibly due to a pauper understanding of mechanisms of 121 mortality at scales larger than the individual tree (Clark *et al.*, 2016). The complexity of tree mortality may greatly limit the generality and utility of physiological 122 123 thresholds identified at the individual tree level for prediction at the population, landscape, 124 regional or global levels. This implies, then, that physiological research at an individual scale might be most productive when identifying "risk factors" that predispose trees to die, 125 126 analogous in the human mortality literature to lifestyle factors such as smoking cigarettes 127 that greatly increase the odds of death from a given cause like cancer (Sijbrands et al., 2009). The identification of key functional and physiological risk factor traits, informed by 128 129 understanding of C and hydraulic dynamics during tree death, has strong promise to 130 improve our prediction of probabilistic mortality risk at the population level (Fig. 1). 131 This synthesis is not intended as a reference for the 'state of the art' on drought-induced tree mortality understanding, as many recent reviews have already addressed challenges in 132 predicting forest response to drought stress in detail (e.g., Allen et al., 2015; Clark et al., 133

134 2016). Here we identify key frontiers in drought-induced tree mortality research across 135 different disciplines and scales, spanning physiological processes in individual tissues to 136 assessments and predictions of local mortality events at regional to global scales (Fig. 2). In addition, we provide research recommendations that serve as guidelines for directing future 137 work to the areas of greatest need. We conclude by setting out a multidisciplinary strategy 138 including practical recommendations that aim to identify crucial physiological risk factors in 139 140 tree and forest mortality. Such risk factors can provide mechanistic relationships for more realistic predictions of future forest conditions. 141

142

143 2. Mechanisms of tree mortality

The hydraulic framework of global-change drought-induced tree mortality (McDowell et al., 144 145 2008) proposed two non-exclusive physiological mechanisms: CS and HF. The relative importance and potential interaction between these two mechanisms leading to tree death 146 147 has structured most of the research since this scientific debate has been started (McDowell 148 & Sevanto, 2010; Sala et al., 2010). For this reason, we identify research frontiers mainly related to C and water relations as well as the role of biotic agents in tree mortality. In 149 addition, the hydraulic framework emphasised ecological processes including plant resource 150 151 acquisition, plant-biotic interactions and the ability of trees to recover from previous 152 drought events. These topics, underrepresented in current research despite their potential 153 significance in drought-induced tree mortality, are briefly discussed in Supporting Information (SI 1). Furthermore, some intrinsic factors known to influence tree responses to 154 drought and heat, like tree functional type (Mitchell et al., 2014; Ruehr et al., 2016), 155 156 developmental stage or age, are underrepresented in the current literature because most

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experimental studies so far have been conducted mainly on evergreen species and on
individual potted tree seedlings or saplings (Table 1). This lack of information highlights the
overarching research frontier of expanding future research on mortality-relevant functional
and physiological traits to a larger range of tree species, developmental stages and
functional types.

162 Carbon

Support for CS is more ambiguous than for HF (O'Brien et al., 2014; Sevanto et al., 2014) and 163 164 death from CS is still debated on (e.g., Körner, 2015) because complete depletion of C 165 reserves is rarely observed. During water limitation, and in particular in combination with 166 elevated temperatures and increasing VPD (Breshears et al., 2013; Eamus et al., 2013; Ruehr 167 et al., 2014), the net C balance of trees can become negative (Zhao et al., 2013) and stored non-structural carbohydrates (NSC) must fuel respiration and several other vital processes, 168 169 including osmoregulation (McDowell, 2011). Thus CS (defined here as the cessation of 170 respiration) has to occur at non-zero NSC concentrations (Hartmann, 2015; Hoch, 2015). So far, however, many studies have addressed C dynamics during drought only partially, i.e. in 171 172 individual tissues and/or organs. To systematically examine the role of tree C metabolism 173 during drought mortality, we suggest investigating whole-tree C dynamics to identify the onset of a negative C balance during severe drought and in combination with high 174 175 temperatures and high VPD. Such investigations must also address C storage mobilization 176 and transport, regulation and remobilization of NSC or alternative reserve compounds such as lipids and proteins during drought (Zhao *et al.*, 2013; Fischer *et al.*, 2015). 177 178 While the responses of photosynthesis to drought have been extensively studied, less is

179 known about changes in whole-plant allocation patterns to C sinks including respiration,

180 defence compounds, emissions of biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOC), root exudates 181 and export to symbionts (e.g., mycorrhiza, rhizobia). VOC emissions (Loreto & Schnitzler, 182 2010) and respiration rates increase often with temperature (Adams et al., 2009) but not always (Duan et al., 2013) during drought. However, scarcity of data on these whole-tree 183 processes currently limits our understanding of whole-tree C dynamics during drought-184 induced mortality. An important step forward would be to quantify the entire net C balance 185 186 of trees to assess when C loss becomes larger than C uptake and available NSC reserves (see also interdependency section) and which minimum levels of NSC might become lethal 187 188 (Weber et al., in press).

189 Water

Hydraulic failure has been addressed in many mortality studies (see references in Table 1) but the point at which xylem embolism develops into fatal HF for a large number of tree species is still unresolved (Urli *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2016), and little is known about the different plant hydraulic strategies related to drought resilience. Therefore, a key research need is to determine specific thresholds of recovery and fatal embolism across individual tissues and whole plants.

Key features derived from xylem vulnerability curves that are generated under controlled
conditions in the lab, including water potential (Ψ) leading to 50% loss in hydraulic
conductivity (Ψ₅₀) possibly lethal in gymnosperms (Brodribb & Cochard, 2009) or 88% (Ψ₈₈)
possibly lethal in hydraulically more tolerant and dynamic angiosperms (Urli *et al.*, 2013; Li *et al.*, 2016), have been suggested as potential indicators of HF (Choat *et al.*, 2012).
However, variation in resistance to embolism may vary substantially within a single species
over space and time (Anderegg, 2015) due to potential effects of plant development (young

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203	vs. adult trees), seasonality (timing of drought), differences among tissues, life history
204	(including air-seeding fatigue), hydraulic capacitance and – potentially – embolism repair.
205	Finally, little is known about the levels of <i>in planta</i> xylem exposure to very low tensions and
206	associated thresholds of massive HF, because measurements are typically conducted on
207	excised branches or stem segments. Frequently applied vulnerability curves carry the risk of
208	overestimating xylem embolism (McElrone et al., 2012), therefore new non-destructive
209	methods such as X-ray micro-tomography (Cochard et al., 2015) or optical techniques
210	(Brodribb et al., 2016) may be promising avenues (Cochard et al., 2015).
211	Plant traits linking wood anatomy to hydraulic properties such as wood density, pit
212	membrane thickness between adjacent vessels and torus overlap in conifer tracheids may
213	be useful proxies for embolism resistance (Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Given that some trees' hydraulic
214	pathways may be highly segmented across organs (e.g., Tyree & Ewers, 1991; Bucci <i>et al.,</i>
215	2012; Johnson et al., 2016), emerging research should identify critical levels of water
216	potential related to embolism and organ loss. A better mechanistic understanding can then
217	be gained by quantifying the range from recoverable to lethal xylem Ψ and its native
218	embolism to provide a probabilistic base for mortality estimates. This should then be linked
219	to hydraulic traits in different tree species/functional types across forested biomes.
220	Interdependencies
221	Carbon and water dynamics in plants are ultimately interrelated via stomatal regulation and
222	vascular transport. The interdependency of CS and HF in drought-induced tree mortality has

- been conceptually well established (McDowell, 2011) but investigations have only recently
- addressed this formally (e.g., O'Brien *et al.*, 2014). Several urgent mortality-related frontiers
- emerge: 1) establish how disruption of xylem-phloem functioning relates to CS, and 2)

identify plant functional type-specific traits related to both CS and HF that can serve as riskfactors in mortality predictions.

228 A better knowledge of C transport processes, i.e. transport via living cells in xylem and 229 phloem, including the loss of interconnectivity between organs, represents a crucial step 230 towards mechanistic understanding of mortality. Measurements of phloem flow in trees are challenging (Sevanto, 2014) and despite recent promising advances (Savage et al., 2016) 231 232 phloem failure has rarely been experimentally investigated in studies on tree mortality 233 (Sevanto et al., 2014). Modelling studies show that high xylem tensions may inhibit water 234 inflow into the phloem during drought, potentially leading to phloem transport failure of 235 NSC from sources to sink tissues (Mencuccini & Hölttä, 2010) due to elevated viscosity and 236 turgor collapse in the phloem (Sevanto, 2014). Investigations on real plants are needed to assess the importance of phloem failure in tree mortality. Furthermore, remobilization of 237 238 stored carbohydrates, i.e. the hydrolysis of starch to sugars, during drought can be inhibited 239 by limited water availability (Sala *et al.*, 2010) and may contribute to C transport failure. We thus emphasize the need to investigate the physiological limits of phloem transport and 240 241 remobilization of sugars.

NSC play an important role as osmolytes to maintain turgor and avoid desiccation as Ψ in
plant tissues decreases with drought (Sala *et al.*, 2012; Salmon *et al.*, 2015). As xylem
tension increases, sugars become an important component of xylem osmoregulation and for
maintaining xylem water flow (Secchi & Zwieniecki, 2011). These functions may limit NSC
availability for other critical metabolic processes (Sala *et al.*, 2012). To address this frontier,
the minimum threshold of NSC concentration required for osmoregulation should be
studied among different plant tissues, species/functional groups and environmental

conditions. Finally, the plasticity of hydraulic and C-related traits with life history (e.g., prior
 exposure to drought) and the gene-by-environment controls on these traits are relevant to
 consider.

252 Insects and Pathogens

253 Plant-damaging insects and pathogens can either kill trees directly as primary agents, or 254 compound physiological stress as secondary agents of tree mortality. Outbreaks are often 255 associated with drought and periods of higher-than-average temperatures (Desprez-Loustau 256 et al., 2006; Anderegg et al., 2015b). These conditions can directly affect insect and pathogen fitness (e.g. reproduction, development, dispersal, mortality), as well as alter tree 257 258 suitability and predisposition to attacks (e.g. substrate quality, defence capacity, attraction 259 due to emitted VOC). Together, both mechanisms determine damage severity and likelihood of tree mortality triggered by biotic agents during drought. Understanding feedback loops 260 261 and complex interactions between host trees, biotic agents and environmental conditions is 262 thus crucial for predicting tree mortality. In this context we highlight the following research frontiers: 1) determine temperature-related changes in insect/pathogen phenology that 263 264 dramatically increase outbreak risk, and 2) identify tree-intrinsic risk factors and critical 265 values for drought-mediated predisposition to biotic attacks.

Higher temperatures have been reported to facilitate insect and pathogen phenology, finally
resulting in an increased outbreak risk (Bentz *et al.*, 2010; Jönsson *et al.*, 2011). However,
such positive relation is typically non-linear, species-specific, and constraint by distinct
thermal upper and lower thresholds (Raffa *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, fitness effects of
increased temperature are expected to be more pronounced at higher latitudes than in the
tropics where species are typically closer to the edge of their thermal tolerance (Deutsch *et*

272	al., 2008). Cooperation among plant ecophysiologists, phytopathologists and entomologists
273	have the potential to improve our empirical understanding of how gradual or extreme
274	temperature changes affect different insect/pathogen populations, and how altered
275	population dynamics can be linked to tree mortality across different ecosystems.
276	In parallel, drought stress can make host trees more susceptible to insect and pathogen
277	attacks due to temporally reduced tree defence mechanisms (Anderegg et al., 2015b). In
278	conifers, decreasing carbohydrate availability and low Ψ during drought can limit the
279	production of defensive oleoresin and the generation of hydraulic pressure in resin ducts,
280	both needed to resist bark beetle attacks (Netherer <i>et al.</i> , 2015), and the emission of
281	specific VOC from trees attracting bark beetles is typically enhanced under drought and
282	elevated temperatures (Kautz <i>et al.</i> , 2013). Thus, drought clearly promotes tree mortality by
283	bark beetle attacks, while for defoliating and sap-feeding insects and pathogens this
284	relationship is less evident (Desprez-Loustau <i>et al.</i> , 2006). Pathogens often critically rely on
285	moisture, but could also benefit from reduced tree defence and the association with insects.
286	Foliage feeders are negatively affected by drought-induced alterations in leaf physiology
287	(e.g., toughness) and chemistry (e.g., C:N ratio). Adequately addressing the complex
288	interactions between positive and negative effects from different levels of drought stress
289	and/or elevated temperature on both hosts and agents and partitioning between causes of
290	mortality (drought vs. biotic agents) is challenging (Ryan et al., 2015). A combination of
291	finely designed controlled experiments could provide information on risk factors including
292	tree C, water and nutrient balances that are critical for defense. Ideally, similarly designed
293	experiments should be conducted across different agent species, host types and levels of
294	drought severity to reveal tree defence strategies in relation to tree physiological status.

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296 3. Process integration, scaling and modelling from tissues to the global vegetation

297 Predicting drought-induced tree mortality is especially challenging because it requires 298 integrating processes that occur on temporal scales from seconds to decades and spatial 299 scales from cells to continents (Fig. 2). Consequently, scaling physiological and ecological 300 processes that influence the probability of mortality over large geographic areas is a major 301 challenge that has to be addressed to predict future risks of regional and global die-off 302 events. At larger spatial scales, mortality is inherently probabilistic and thus we focus here 303 on how key physiological mechanisms and risk factors at the individual tree level can be scaled up to provide changes in the probability of mortality in a species, population, or 304 305 region.

306 Process integration and scaling issues in predictions of mortality

307 Scaling from individual trees to ecosystems and regions requires determining key 308 environmental factors that may change the probability of mortality in space: 1) lateral water 309 flows and the role of groundwater or hydraulic lift in mitigating water stress (Barbeta et al., 310 2015), 2) existing spatial variation in soils, microclimate, and stand structure, and 3) biotic interactions that include insects/pathogens, and plant-plant interactions such as 311 312 competition for water (see also S1). For instance, landscape variability due to topography, 313 soil characteristics, and management history likely promotes patchy patterns of mortality that are often observed across broad regions (Huang & Anderegg, 2012). The spatial pattern 314 315 of tree mortality may be further affected by the interaction between drought and 316 insect/pathogen outbreaks, due to the spatial nature of pest dispersal and infection

317	(Anderegg et al., 2015b). The contribution of such interactions to mortality distribution in
318	space remains a crucial research area to inform simulations of mortality events.
319	Furthermore, mortality events must be considered within the time scales of tree population
320	dynamics and contingencies of climate variations. For example, the sequence of mortality
321	events and high growth periods experienced by tree populations is likely critical to
322	determine long-term vegetation community dynamics. Positive feedbacks will increase
323	forest vulnerability to new episodes of drought, if successive droughts lead to cumulative
324	physiological damage, exhaustion of resources, diminished defence capacity and/or non-
325	reversible loss of regenerating structures and recruitment capacity. Alternatively, stabilizing
326	feedbacks may operate if tree mortality increases survival of neighbours due to competition
327	release and adaptation of the forest community to drier conditions (Lloret <i>et al.</i> , 2012).
328	Consequently, we highlight the following frontiers: 1) Identify whether mortality probability
329	of tree populations to drought increases or decreases with successive exposure to stress, 2)
330	determine the extent to which genetic adaptation and phenotypic plasticity mediate
331	population resilience to drought and probability of mortality within a population, and 3)
332	understand the impact of drought on population regeneration including seed production
333	and recruitment.

334 Modelling

Models are important tools for integrating process understanding and making future projections across a gamut of spatial scales, ranging from individual trees to the entire globe (Fig. 2). We focus here on the integration of mortality processes in dynamic vegetation models (DVMs), particularly dynamic global vegetation models (DGVMs), although similar approaches and algorithms will be useful also in other model classes. There is currently

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340 considerable interest in improving the representation of tree mortality in DGVMs, given its 341 importance on long-term forest dynamics (Bircher et al., 2015), and in the regulation of 342 ecosystem carbon storage (e.g., Friend et al., 2014). However, tree mortality formulations in current DGVMs are generally simple, ranging from fixed carbon turnover rates (Galbraith et 343 al., 2013) to approaches where mortality is related to growth efficiency or negative carbon 344 345 balance (McDowell et al., 2011). Such approaches have been found to be insufficient to 346 adequately capture observations of drought-induced tree mortality (e.g., Manusch et al., 2012). 347

To address these problems, we identify the following research frontiers: 1) implement plant 348 349 hydraulic representations in DVMs that allow for species- or plant functional type-specific 350 drought strategies in dimensions of stomatal control, root distribution, allometry, and hydraulic properties such as vulnerability to embolism, 2) determine the key axes of drought 351 352 trait trade-offs necessary to simulating different species' drought response strategies 353 (Bartlett et al., 2016) and how these are linked to probability of mortality (Anderegg et al., 2016), and 3) test and validate probabilistic mortality functions at regional scales against 354 355 extreme droughts in the observational record where probability of mortality can be 356 estimated through forest inventories, other plot data, or remote-sensing estimates (Brienen et al., 2015). We emphasize that if mortality projections are made at regional scales, model 357 358 validation against independent mortality data should be performed at the same spatial 359 scales to have confidence in model projections.

Among these three research areas, simulating plant hydraulics is a key frontier for several main reasons. First, loss of hydraulic conductivity has been observed in almost every mortality event or experiment (Adams *et al.*, 2017). Second, thresholds in hydraulic loss

have been documented in several species (e.g., Brodribb & Cochard, 2009) and hydraulic
traits appear to predict which species in a community are at higher risk of mortality in a
given drought (Anderegg *et al.*, 2016).Third, whole-tree hydraulic models exist and are
relatively well-validated (e.g., Sperry & Love, 2015), suggesting they are suitable to
incorporate into larger models,.

Testing and validating mortality algorithms in DVMs is challenging. Standard mortality 368 benchmark datasets are greatly needed, but have not yet been proposed. Many DVMs 369 370 include only woody biomass pools and do not have explicit representation of "trees" or at 371 least tree cohorts that would be needed to calculate both drought hydraulic damage (e.g. 372 embolism) and mortality rates to compare to plot-level data (McDowell et al., 2013a). The 373 non-linear and threshold-like nature of probability of mortality will make the determination and calibration of thresholds for plant functional types difficult, especially for coarse 374 375 functional types that are implemented in DGVMs. However, recent advances in synthesizing 376 large-scale plot networks (Crowther et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2016) and remote-sensing (e.g., Hansen *et al.*, 2013) may allow assessment of thresholds at regional and larger spatial scales 377 378 and for coarse groups of plants. Models that can accurately capture processes across spatial 379 and temporal scales – ecophysiological dynamics, such as seasonal and inter-annual changes 380 in Ψ and hydraulic conductivity, plot-level mortality rates, and regional plot or satellite-381 estimated spatial and temporal patterns of mortality (Anderegg et al., 2015a) – will be 382 needed to improve confidence in mortality projections.

383

An integrative and multidisciplinary strategy for assessing, understanding and predicting
 future forest condition

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386 In addition to the research frontiers and recommendations highlighted in the previous 387 sections, we advocate here a comprehensive strategy towards a better understanding and 388 forecasting of drought-induced tree mortality (Fig. 4, McDowell et al., 2015a; Trumbore et al., 2015) by including the following coordinated actions: 1) assess trends and hotspots in 389 tree and forest mortality at the global scale via monitoring at multiple scales, 2) attribute 390 mortality causes and drivers based on observations and manipulations in mortality-prone 391 392 forest ecosystems and investigate the underlying physiological risk factors that may serve as 393 mortality predictors that 3) allow then more realistic forecasting of forest responses to 394 anticipated future climate such as changes in mortality probabilities with changing environmental conditions. 395

396 Assessing changes in forest condition via monitoring at multiple scales

397 Global forest health may be defined as "a mosaic of successional [forest] patches 398 representing all stages of the natural range of disturbance and recovery" (Raffa et al., 2009; 399 p. 815, Trumbore et al., 2015) and may be best assessed by changes in forest condition spanning scales from trees to the globe (McDowell et al., 2015a) thereby providing early 400 warning indicators of forest stress (Allen et al., 2010). The most robust and likely the most 401 easily detected proxy for changes in forest health may be mortality rates that are outside of 402 403 the natural range of variability (Trumbore *et al.*, 2015). In fact, many countries have 404 excellent existing networks of detailed forest inventory plots that allow assessment of 405 changes in forest condition because they are measured and revisited on a regular basis – 406 many of these also include measures of tree mortality (e.g., in the U.S., the Forest Inventory and Analysis Program; Shaw et al., 2005). However, these monitoring data are not available 407 in "real-time", are often not openly accessible and synthesizing data from multiple plot 408

409 network sources (e.g., different countries) can be a complex task. In addition, historical 410 inventory data typically have been field-collected on longer time intervals (commonly every 411 5 to 10 years), making it difficult to pinpoint mortality occurrences to specific climatic events and/or causes of tree death. By contrast, satellite data are becoming more easily available 412 and may allow "close to real-time" assessments of changes in forest cover from 413 disturbances over large regions (McDowell et al., 2015a). Ground-based validation of 414 415 satellite data may build on an already increasing number of inventory plot networks from 416 both governmental agencies and/or multiple research institutions partnerships (like 417 RAINFOR, FORESTPLOTS.NET or CTFS-ForestGEO) that cover different forest biomes. However, these plot-based monitoring networks were never designed to specifically address 418 419 tree mortality, and we will need novel observation networks (or protocols) that allow a 420 faster and more automated detection of mortality events. 421 Recent advances in remote sensing provide a new generation of tools that could enable 422 global satellite monitoring of die-off and other broad-scale disturbances (McDowell et al., 2015a). For example, the Global Forest Watch initiative (<u>http://www.globalforestwatch.org</u>) 423 424 of the World Resources Institute is a good step forward to detecting temporal changes in 425 forest cover from disturbance or mortality but the spatial resolution of the underlying data (30 m) is larger than the scale at which individual tree mortality occurs and precludes 426 427 inferences on the underlying physiological processes. New technologies, like Lidar, now 428 allow monitoring of individual trees over larger areas (e.g., Asner et al., 2016) thereby 429 closing the gap between tree-level information from inventory plots, and information at stand and regional scales derived from satellite data. The challenge now becomes to link 430 431 these approaches in a coordinated manner, allowing (1) a direct flow of information

between the different layers of monitoring, (2) a continued improvement of remote sensing
products and increases toward real-time mortality assessment and detection of mortality
hotspots, and (3) a facilitated access to large international data sets to link ground-based
and remotely sensed data (Trumbore *et al.*, 2015).

Although the Global Forest Watch provides "close to real-time" information on forest 436 437 conditions, changes in forest cover are currently captured by identifying areas with well-438 defined boundary attributes, like forest management and land-use change, or large-scale 439 severe disturbances (e.g., wild fires, windthrow, insect outbreaks). Climate change-driven 440 mortality of individual trees would thus likely appear as remaining spatially-diffuse changes 441 in forest cover and are currently not systematically assessed. Such mortality should become 442 a focus for ground-proofing via existing inventory or research plot data. Additional assessment cruises or Lidar imaging will allow determining whether changes in forest cover 443 444 are due to mortality or reduced vigour of trees. Such measurements can be supplemented by multi-spectral imagery installed on UAV (unmanned aerial vehicles, e.g., Dash et al., 445 2017). Taken together such tools will open promising avenues to monitor forest health at 446 447 scales relevant for detecting tree mortality (Hartmann *et al.*, in press).

448 Understanding mortality causes and identifying mechanisms for forecasting: the 449 roles of observations and experiments

To forecast drought-induced tree mortality we need to understand mortality mechanisms at the tree level first and use this understanding to derive mortality-related risk factors that allow probabilistic mortality predictions at larger scales. Naturally-occurring lethal drought events (identified as hotspots of spatially-diffuse mortality) detected by remote-sensing, may become platforms for intensive long-term observations, mid-term field manipulations

455	and even close-up process studies of affected species under controlled environmental
456	conditions such as in greenhouses (Fig. 4). Drought properties (duration, severity and timing
457	of occurrence) that determine the physiological impact of water deficit on plants (Novák,
458	2009) have so far been almost completely neglected in drought mortality research and must
459	be addressed in both field observations and field/greenhouse studies. While observations
460	and experiments on drought progression are still limited and hampered by the underlying
461	complexity of defining drought (Paulo & Pereira, 2006), information gathered from
462	naturally-occurring droughts can help improve experimental designs by focusing on more
463	realistic combinations of drought characteristics (severity, duration, seasonality) a long with
464	increases in temperatures and VPD (Ruehr et al., 2016). These drought characteristics can
465	be manipulated in field and/or greenhouse or garden experiments to establish cross-species
466	risk factors for tree decline and robust parameters for mechanistic relationships between
467	changes in environmental conditions and tree physiological responses, especially if such
468	investigations cover a range of regions and biomes (Adams at al. 2017)
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469	Although often limited to small trees, controlled and replicated experiments can provide
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470 471 472 473	Although often limited to small trees, controlled and replicated experiments can provide insightful whole-tree perspectives on C dynamics including C flux measurements of gas exchange (photosynthesis and respiration), C allocation, NSC and non-NSC storage and remobilization (Ryan, 2011). An impressive attempt of studying tree C balance responses in the field using whole-tree chambers has been recently demonstrated (Aspinwall <i>et al.</i> ,
470 471 472 473 474	Although often limited to small trees, controlled and replicated experiments can provide insightful whole-tree perspectives on C dynamics including C flux measurements of gas exchange (photosynthesis and respiration), C allocation, NSC and non-NSC storage and remobilization (Ryan, 2011). An impressive attempt of studying tree C balance responses in the field using whole-tree chambers has been recently demonstrated (Aspinwall <i>et al.</i> , 2016). Such studies combined with severe drought and heat treatments can provide
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478	species or combining research efforts across similar designed experiments will provide
479	probabilistic mortality distributions to define the mortality risk zone (see Fig. 1).
480	Responses of a range of tree species and different functional types to different climate
481	change scenarios, including elevated CO_2 and temperature with changes in VPD and specific
482	humidity (Eamus <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2017), will provide information on the interplay of
483	risk (e.g., high VPD) vs. "safety" (e.g., elevated CO_2) factors. Such studies are technically
484	challenging and may be often limited to manipulation under controlled conditions
485	(seedlings/saplings) in the greenhouse, but attempts have been made to carry research into
486	natural setting in the field, and on larger trees (Aspinwall et al., 2016).
487	In addition, observations and experiments along naturally-occurring drought and
488	temperature gradients can be a valuable addition to drought experiments when studying
489	tree responses to different climatic drivers (Stape <i>et al.,</i> 2006; Moore <i>et al.,</i> 2016; Binkley <i>et</i>
490	al., 2017) and interactions with nutrient limitations. Intensive field investigations will be
491	most promising if common protocols for observations and measurements are developed
492	and used across different projects (e.g., as in NutNet, DroughtNet and similar research
493	networks). Impacts of insects and pathogens during drought must become part of protocols
494	in field studies and observations, as they are crucial risk factors in tree mortality.
495	Forecasting forest responses to climatic change
496	Scaling physiological and ecological processes that influence mortality over large geographic
497	areas and implementing them in models is challenging. We posit that there are critical, high-
498	priority steps for improving vegetation models' prediction of mortality: 1) model trees, and

499 thus mortality, directly; incorporating individual-based representation of trees in DGVMs

500 (e.g., Purves & Pacala, 2008) will enable direct simulation of tree mortality probabilities, 501 rather than changes in biomass pools. 2) model hydraulics; incorporate tree-level hydraulics 502 into vegetation models and scaling responses to regional scales that account for diversity in species, stand structures, and other sources of variation is likely to improve mortality 503 prediction. 3) Test mortality algorithms directly; more detailed and rigorous evaluation of 504 505 mortality algorithms using plot networks and remote sensing products is greatly needed to 506 test model simulations of mortality dynamics over large areas. Finally, 4), model NSC 507 dynamics more realistically; like all sessile organisms, trees respond to environmental 508 constraints by modifying resource (i.e. NSC) allocation to alleviate stress and compensate 509 resource limitation. For example, plants are thought to increase root growth during drought 510 to promote water uptake (sensu optimal partitioning, Poorter et al., 2012). Although our 511 knowledge of the regulation of NSC storage and remobilization in trees is still very limited (Hartmann & Trumbore, 2016) and accurate NSC measurements in plant tissues are still 512 513 challenging (Quentin et al., 2015) implementations of NSC dynamics in models that account for the perennial nature of trees will provide a more realistic predictions of tree responses 514 515 to environmental change (Dietze et al., 2014).

516 5. Conclusion

517 We provide a set of specific and crucial high-priority research frontiers that can help 518 improving forecasting of forest conditions by promoting probabilistic mortality risk 519 predictions. Similar to epidemiological research, mortality risk predictions for trees require 520 also large data sets with substantial detail on the underlying physiological processes of the 521 risk factors. This calls for international sharing of forest data and thus for a global 522 monitoring network based on both governmental and academic support. Such a network will combine field observations, manipulations, controlled experiments and modeling.
Although the central theme of this network will be based on data sharing, knowledge
transfer to effective policy-making and forest management will become increasingly
important for forest conservation. As most governments and concerned NGOs have been
acknowledging the central role of forests for human welfare and livelihood at the global
scale, initiatives for forest monitoring should be ranked high up on the international political
agenda.

530

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556	SUPPORTING INFORMATION
557	Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article:
558	SI 1 Mechanisms interacting with tree mortality: proposition for new key research areas
559	SI 2 References of published experimental studies on drought-induced tree mortality shown

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- 560 in Table 1.
- **SI 3** References documenting the most recent localities shown in Fig. 3.

562 References

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Review

807

809 Box 1 Death is a complex issue in plants

810 A fundamental question in research on tree mortality concerns the underlying concept of 811 tree death. While apparently intuitive, the concept of tree death is quite different from the 812 concept of death in animals. In contrast to animals, plants lack a nervous system serving as a 813 control organ and indicator of vital functions. In plants, meristematic cells maintain their 814 capacity to differentiate throughout the life time of the plant and many plant cell types, 815 even after their maturation, can re-differentiate, reinitiate cell division and, in some 816 instances, reproduce whole organisms (Taiz & Zeiger, 2002). Meristematic tissues which can 817 be found in stem and root apices and in the vascular cambium, allow trees to potentially grow indeterminately and to produce a modular body where organs/tissues may die off 818 819 without causing mortality of the entire tree (Klimešová et al., 2015). Some tree species can 820 survive thousands of years by creating hydraulically independent units that allow large tree 821 parts to die back, while the organism itself survives (Larson, 2001). 822 A universal definition of tree death might thus be impossible to achieve. Instead, death 823 indicators must be operationally defined at processes and scales meaningful to the scientific 824 field, type of trees and research goals. Vegetation modelers may consider sustained periods 825 of zero growth or the absence of aboveground living biomass (e.g. branches and stems) as 826 mortality; while ecosystem ecologists may accept a high degree of defoliation at the canopy 827 level in evergreen species (Galiano et al., 2011; Guada et al., 2016), and physiologists the 828 absence of dark respiration (Hartmann et al., 2013) or mortality of cambial cells (Li et al., 829 2016) as indicator of tree death. An alternative, potentially useful concept is the "point of 830 no return", when the organism is irreversibly prone to death although some tissues may still be alive. Several whole-plant metrics of the point of no return have been proposed, 831

832	including loss of living aboveground tissue (quantified via leaf wilting and/or application of
833	vital dyes to branch/stem tissues), cessation of water transport and hydraulic
834	conductivity/water potential gradients that do not recover when conditions get wetter
835	(Anderegg <i>et al.,</i> 2012).
836	Given the interdisciplinary character of tree mortality research, we must accept that an
837	operational definition of tree death of a particular discipline will remain ambiguous to other
838	disciplines. While being aware of the difficulty in translating this concept across disciplines,
839	we urge here the need to clearly define and report criteria of tree death in individual studies
840	while thriving for more uniform definitions within each discipline and plant functional group
841	(e.g., evergreens vs. deciduous trees).
842	

843 Tables

for per period

Table 1 Summary of published experimental studies on drought-induced tree mortality
(Adams *et al.*, 2017)showing plant functional type (PFT), study type (field, greenhouse [GH],
growth chamber [Cham] or outdoor potted [Out-pot]) and developmental stage of the trees
used in each study. Please see details for PFT below the table. References can be found in SI
2.

		PFT			
Species	mai n	alternat e	Study type	Develop. stage	Reference
Acer pseudoplatanus	TBD	6	Out-pot	Seedling	Piper and Fajardo 2016
Populus balsamifera	TBD	BBD	GH/Out-pot	Seedling	Galvez et al. 2013
Populus tremuloides	TBD	BBD	Field	Mature	Anderegg et al. 2012
Populus tremuloides	TBD	BBD	GH/Out-pot	Seedling	Galvez et al. 2013
Eucalyptus globulus	TBE		бн	Seedling	Mitchell et al. 2013, 2014
Eucalyptus radiata	TBE		GH	Seedling	Duan et al. 2014
Eucalyptus smithii	TBE		GH	Seedling	Mitchell et al. 2013, 2014
Nothofagus dombeyi	TBE		GН	Sapling	Piper 2011
Nothofagus nitida	TBE		GH	Sapling	Piper 2011
Callitris rhomboidea	TNE		GH	Seedling	Duan et al. 2015
Juniperus osteosperma	TNE		Out-pot	Sapling	Anderegg and Anderegg 2013
Picea abies	TNE	BNE	Out-pot	Sapling	Hartmann et al. 2013a
Picea abies	TNE	BNE	Cham	Sapling	Hartmann et al. 2013b
Pinus sylvestris	TNE	BNE	GH	Sapling	Garcia Forner et al. 2016
Pinus edulis	TNE		GH	Sapling	Adams et al. 2009, 2013
Pinus edulis	TNE		Out-pot	Sapling	Anderegg and Anderegg 2013
Pinus edulis	TNE		Field	Mature	Plaut et al. 2012
Pinus edulis	TNE		GH	Sapling	Sevanto et al. 2014
Pinus radiata	TNE		GH	Seedling	Duan et al. 2015

Pinus radiata	TNE	GH	Seedling	Mitchell et al. 2013, 2014
Pinus sylvestris	TNE BNE	Field	Mature	Galiano et al. 2011
Dryobalanops Ianceolata	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Durio oxleyanus	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Hopea nervosa	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Koompassia excelsa	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Parashorea malaanonan	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Parashorea tomentella	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Shorea argentifolia	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Shorea beccariana	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Shorea macrophylla	TrBE	GН	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015
Shorea parvifolia	TrBE	GH	Seedling	O'Brien et al. 2015

TBD - temperate broadleaf deciduous, TBE - temperate broadleaf evergreen, TNE-temperate 849

needleleaf evergreen, TrBE - tropical broadleaf evergreen, BBD - boreal broadleaf 850

deciduous, BNE - boreal needleleaf evergreen 851

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37

854	Figure captions

855 Figure 1 Conceptual representation of a probabilistic framework for predicting mortality of a 856 tree population (e.g., species, plant functional type) based on risk factors. Ecophysiological 857 research must determine thresholds for "risk factors", e.g. like xylem traits that are relevant for drought vulnerability/tolerance, and beyond which the probability of mortality 858 increases. The spread of the "mortality risk zone" represents the variability of the risk factor 859 860 with respect to occurring mortality. Different risk factors can interact, as when vulnerability 861 to biotic attack increases with depletion of carbohydrates (McDowell *et al.*, 2011). 862 Figure 2 Spatial and temporal scales of tree and forest mortality. Ecophysiological processes integrate over time and from tissue to tree level. These are further influenced by biotic and 863 864 abiotic interactions at the ecosystem level and scale up to landscapes and longer time scales. A wide range of tools are needed for detecting, understanding and predicting tree 865 death occurrences: while ground-based assessments provide data for process integration at 866 867 smaller spatial scales, remote-sensing and large-scale monitoring are increasingly important 868 for model-based global simulations and projections of forest mortality in future climate conditions. 869

Figure 3 Locations of substantial drought- and heat-induced tree mortality around the globe since 1970, documented by peer-reviewed studies, updated from Allen *et al.* (2015). Global forest cover (dark green) and other wooded regions (light green) based on FAO (2005). Studies compiled through 2009 (red dots) are summarized and listed in Allen *et al.* (2010); additional localities include the white dots and oval shapes derived from Figure 4-7 and its

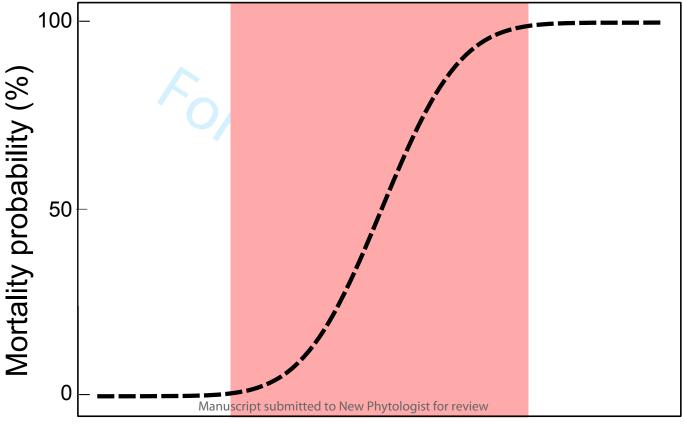
associated caption in IPCC (2014), the black dots from Fig. 2 in Allen *et al.* (2015), and

additional localities (blue) from other recent publications listed in SI 3

Figure 4 Conceptual framework for focused research on drought-induced tree and forest 877 878 mortality. A coordinated monitoring network that combines inventory plot data and 879 satellite-based remote sensing can provide information on changes in forest cover and identify potential hotspots of mortality. Mortality occurrences in these hotspots can be 880 881 validated using aerial-based remote sensing technologies like Lidar. In these hotspots, 882 investigations on the underlying physiological processes and ecological interactions through a combination of experimental manipulations and intensive field observations will provide 883 mechanistic relationships allowing more realistic forecasting of forest conditions under 884 anticipated future climate. 885

Mortality risk zone

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Risk factor value

