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1 **Taxonomic and structural diversity indices predict soil carbon storage better than functional**
2 **diversity indices along a dieback intensity gradient in semi-arid oak forests**

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16 **Key Message:** The use of structural diversity indices can be efficient tools to increase
17 understanding of changes in soil carbon storage as a key ecosystem function along the oak
18 dieback intensi

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21 **Taxonomic and structural diversity indices predict soil carbon storage better than**
22 **functional diversity indices along a dieback intensity gradient in semi-arid oak forests**

23
24
25 **Abstract**

26 Investigating the relationships between diversity indices and ecosystem functions within the
27 mass-ratio and niche complementary hypotheses is still a challenging issue in terrestrial
28 ecology. These relationships have not been studied along a dieback gradient of disturbance in
29 semiarid forest ecosystems. To fill this gap, we investigated the relationships between a main
30 ecosystem function -soil carbon storage- and various diversity indices along a dieback intensity
31 gradient (no, low, moderate or high dieback intensity) in protected or intensively managed

32 mixed oak forests in western Iran. We used different diversity approaches and calculated the
33 functional divergence index (FDvar), community weighted mean trait values; CWM, taxonomic
34 diversity indices (richness, Shannon–Wiener diversity and evenness) and structural diversity
35 indices (MI: mingling index, HD: height differentiation, DD: diameter differentiation). Soil
36 carbon storage was significantly influenced by the type of management, the intensity of dieback
37 and their interactions and was higher in the protected areas ($95.90 \pm 4.62 \text{ ton ha}^{-1}$) than in the
38 intensively managed areas ($76.52 \pm 2.04 \text{ ton ha}^{-1}$). It showed a humped-shaped pattern along
39 the dieback intensity gradient in the protected areas, as it peaked at the low dieback intensity
40 ($122.47 \pm 10.12 \text{ ton ha}^{-1}$), indicating that soil function was maximized at a low disturbance
41 level. Soil carbon storage was positively and significantly correlated with all structural and
42 taxonomic diversity indices, except for evenness, but negatively with most functional
43 composition indices (CWM of LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody species
44 height and LDMC: leaf dry-matter content). It was best predicted by a structural index
45 (Mingling index: $R^2=0.214$) followed by a taxonomic index (species richness, $R^2=0.173$) and a
46 CWM index (CWM LDMC, $R^2=0.158$). Our results emphasize the role played by the diversity
47 indices to predict ecosystem functions in contrasted management conditions and along a
48 dieback gradient. They also provide evidence to support both the mass-ratio and niche
49 complementary hypotheses.

50 Keywords: Ecosystem function, forest management, biodiversity, woody species.

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54 **Introduction**

55 Forest vegetation and soils are major reservoirs of carbon storage which make forests the largest
56 carbon sink in terrestrial ecosystems (Schimel et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2019; Jhariya, 2017; Qiu
57 et al., 2020) and major contributors in buffering climate change (Aishan et al., 2018; Gordon et
58 al., 2018; Klemm et al., 2020). Forest ecosystems, as atmospheric carbon dioxide filters, have a
59 high potential for storing carbon in wood and other organic matter (Watson et al., 2000) and
60 therefore play an important role in stabilizing the global carbon cycle contributing to the climate
61 stability and preventing global warming (Zhu et al., 2010). However, the amount of carbon stored
62 in soils is about four times the amount of carbon stored in the biomass and 3.3 times the amount
63 of carbon in the atmosphere (Lal, 2004). Therefore, any change in the environmental conditions
64 of the forest ecosystem or in management measures can significantly influence soil carbon and
65 biomass storage and more globally the overall ecosystem carbon flow and atmospheric carbon
66 dioxide content (Han et al., 2008; Brahma et al., 2018; Marques et al., 2019; Ghosh et al., 2020).
67 Limiting the increase in atmospheric carbon is not just a matter of reducing its emission, and
68 methods favoring the carbon storage in the vegetation and subsoil can also represent cost-
69 effective, simple and practical methods (Richards and Stokes, 2004; Cho et al., 2019). In
70 particular, the protection and restoration of forest areas can play a key role in balancing the carbon
71 cycle as vegetation degradation can reduce carbon storage and increase carbon dioxide emissions.
72 Carbon sequestration potential in forested areas is affected by plant species, climate, and the way
73 biomass is managed, exploited, and used (Singh et al., 2003; Ruiz-Peinado et al., 2017). For
74 example, the capacity of woody plants for carbon sequestration is species-dependent (Thomas et
75 al., 2007). In fact, carbon allocation in the different organs of the woody species is a key factor in
76 the carbon cycle since they have different lifespan and decomposition rates (Pilli et al., 2012).
77 Besides, human actions or natural events leading to site degradation are also crucial factors altering
78 carbon storage of the ecosystem (Ahmad et al., 2018). This applies particularly to large forest
79 dieback.

80 Indeed, in the last two decades, a widespread phenomenon named tree dieback has been reported
81 in many forest ecosystems over the world (Ibáñez et al., 2017; Ogaya et al., 2020; Sánchez-
82 Salguero and Camarero, 2020). This phenomenon occurred with different intensities in western
83 forests of Iran and affected several major tree species including the Persian oak (*Quercus brantii*
84 Lindl.) (Karami et al., 2018; Shiravand and Hosseini, 2020). In general, this forest decline is

85 attributed to climatic factors and particularly long and recurrent periods of drought but habitat
86 destruction, pests and diseases, as well as non-adaptive management can cause or exacerbate this
87 phenomenon (Kamata et al., 2002; Touhami et al., 2019; Hevia et al., 2019).

88 However, the effect of site degradation and non-adaptive forest management on the severity of this
89 phenomenon has not received much attention (Haller and Wimberly, 2020). According to the
90 intensity of the dieback, a more or less significant part of the plant decays and disappears, which
91 can lead to the gradual elimination of some plant species and modify the species composition and
92 diversity of the ecosystem (Koepke et al., 2010; Nagel et al., 2019). Numerous studies have
93 examined the effects of disturbances (in particular drought) on tree growth and C storage
94 (Brouwers et al., 2013; Avila et al., 2016; Takahashi et al., 2020), but the effects of different
95 dieback intensities under contrasted management regimes have been more rarely studied.

96 Among the main factors affecting the carbon storage of land ecosystems species diversity plays a
97 crucial role (Steinbeiss et al., 2008; Sintayehu et al., 2020). Diversity usually includes the number
98 of species (richness) and their abundance but to get deeper insight into the ecosystem processes
99 different functional characteristics of plants must be considered (Díaz and Cabido, 2001). Based
100 on these plant traits, a new group of biodiversity indices, called functional diversity indices, has
101 emerged and has been largely used in numerous ecosystems (Tilman, 2001; Conti and Díaz, 2013;
102 Kuebbing et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). They not only consider the abundance of plants within
103 the community but also integrate the value, the range, the distribution and frequency of various
104 functional traits (Díaz et al., 2007). In recent years, functional diversity indices have been used to
105 evaluate different ecosystem functions including carbon storage (Tahmasebi et al., 2017; Häger
106 and Avalos, 2017; Heydari et al., 2020 a) and better results were obtained than by using classical
107 indices (such as Shannon and Simpson diversity index) (e.g. Siebenkäs and Roscher, 2016). For
108 instance, functional traits using height and wood density of tree or shrub species were shown to be
109 directly related to soil biomass and carbon storage, while leaf dry matter content was negatively
110 related to biomass and carbon storage (Tahmasebi et al., 2017; Rawat et al., 2019). Also, higher
111 nutrient uptake rates (such as nitrogen and phosphorus) and higher specific leaf area (SLA)
112 increase photosynthesis and ultimately the plant carbon storage (Herms and Mattson 1992; Poorter
113 and Garnier, 2007; Freschet et al. 2012). Therefore, the use of functional traits of plants can
114 increase our knowledge of changes in ecosystem carbon storage.

115 In addition, the forest structure often reflects the effect of past management actions or natural
116 disturbances (Heydari et al., 2017; Haber et al., 2020 a) and descriptors of this structure can also
117 be effective in predicting changes in various ecosystem functions, including carbon storage (Zhang
118 et al., 2018; Ali, 2019). Although a great variety of indices has been used to explore many
119 ecosystem functions, we still largely ignore to what extent these indices can be used in forest
120 systems submitted to forest decline and different management conditions. In this study, we used a
121 gradient of forest dieback in semi-arid oak ecosystems under two contrasted types of management
122 to investigate the relationships between taxonomic, functional and structural diversity indices and
123 soil carbon storage. Our assumptions are the following: (1) soil carbon storage is affected by the
124 type of management (conservation vs traditional intense use) and the intensity of dieback, (2)
125 among the indices used, those based on community-weighted mean (CWM) functional traits better
126 predict soil carbon storage changes along the dieback gradient in the two management systems,
127 (3) simultaneous use of all diversity approaches (taxonomic, functional and structural) increases
128 the predictability of changes in soil carbon storage, (4) CWM trait values can better explain the
129 separation between the two types of management than the other approaches.

130

131

132 **Material and methods**

133 **Sites description**

134 The study area is located in semi-arid mixed oak forests in Ilam county (western Iran). These
135 forests initially hosted a particularly rich flora including many endangered species and are still
136 recognized as a hotspot of biodiversity. However, forests were submitted to long history of human
137 disturbances (e.g. firewood exploitation, grazing and fire) altering main ecological functions and
138 diversity. Two adjacent forest areas with the same physiographic conditions (average slope less
139 than 20 %, same altitude and similar site conditions) were selected (Figure 1). These two areas
140 were initially covered by dense forests centuries ago but were then intensively exploited and
141 degraded due to the high dependence of people's livelihood on forest resources in particular cutting
142 down trees for fuel consumption and charcoal production and livestock grazing. After the
143 implementation of national policies approved 50 years ago in Iran, one of the two areas was
144 protected by the Natural Resources Office from any anthropogenic disturbances (protected area)
145 while the other was left to the traditional intense use (degraded area). The predominant species in

146 these forests is the Persian oak (*Quercus brantii* Lindl.), accompanied by some tree and shrub
147 species such as *Acer monspessulanum* L. subsp. *Cinerascens* (Boiss. Yaltirik), *Pistacia atlantica*
148 Desf., *Crataegus pontica* K. Koch., *Cerasus microcarpa* Boiss. and *Daphne mucronata* Royle. In
149 the degraded area, only scattered individuals of oaks with large stem diameters and pistachio are
150 found, while the other woody species are very scarce. In contrast, in the protected area oak trees
151 are more frequent and of smaller diameter and mixed with different tree and shrub species.
152 Usually, the density of woody species in the study area varies from 30 to 100 stems per hectare.
153 The soil of both areas is a shallow calcareous clay loamy soil (average depth: 30 to 40 cm) with
154 abundant small and large stones on the soil surface.
155 According to long-term statistics of the nearest meteorological station, the mean annual
156 precipitation and the mean annual temperature are 652.6 mm and 17 °C respectively. This region
157 is generally described as sub-Mediterranean with a completely seasonal rainfall distribution which
158 peaks at autumn (Fathizadeh et al., 2017).
159 Since 2001, a phenomenon known as dieback or sudden death of tree species has occurred leading
160 to drying up of trees partially or totally. Oaks were particularly affected and symptoms of decay
161 were of variable intensity. The causes of this forest decline are still not well known, although some
162 researchers have attributed this phenomenon to the stresses of prolonged drought periods
163 (Goodarzi et al., 2019; Shiravand and Hosseini, 2020).

164
165

166 **Experimental design and sampling**

167 In each of the two forest areas, forty sample plots of 1000 m² were evenly allocated in each of the
168 four dieback intensity classes (low, moderate, high or no). Classes were defined using visual
169 criteria of dieback as follows:

- 170 • High intensity dieback: trees with at least 3:4 of their canopy dry and with deep cracks on most
171 parts of the trunk.
- 172 • Moderate intensity dieback: 1:4 to 1:2 of the tree canopy is dry with some cracks and holes on the
173 trunk.
- 174 • Low intensity dieback: less than 1:4 of the canopy is dry and no other signs of rot, holes and cracks
175 on the trunk are visible.
- 176 • No dieback: healthy trees without signs of dieback.

177
178
179 At each each plot, three soil samples were randomly collected from the 0-30 cm layer, mixed
180 together to produce one composite soil sample. Soil samples (total: 80) were immediately
181 transferred to the laboratory for analysis. Additional undisturbed soil cores were sampled in the 0–
182 30 cm mineral layer and soil bulk density (BD) was measured (Black and Hartge, 1986). Soil
183 organic carbon (SOC) was determined by the Walky and Black wet oxidation method (Nelson and
184 Sommers, 1982).

185 The soil carbon storage (CS) was calculated by equation 1 (Qin et al., 2016):

186
$$CS \text{ (t/ha)} = SOC \text{ (\%)} \times BD \text{ (gr/cm}^3\text{)} \times SD \text{ (cm)} \times 10^{-1} \quad \text{(Equation 1)}$$

187
188 where SOC is soil organic carbon, BD is soil bulk density and SD is soil depth (30 cm).

189
190

191 **Measurements of the functional traits**

192 In order to evaluate functional diversity at the plot level, several traits related to carbon storage
193 were measured (Finegan et al., 2015; Ali and Yan, 2017). For different tree and shrub species,
194 twenty well grown and without damage leaves were collected from the southern direction of
195 the canopy. Samples were put into an ice box and transferred to the laboratory to measure the
196 fresh and dry (48 hours in it at 70 ° C) leaf weight and the leaf area (mm²). The leaf dry-matter
197 content (LDMC) (mg g⁻¹) was calculated as the oven-dry mass (mg) of a leaf, divided by its
198 fresh mass (g). Specific leaf area (SLA) was determined as fresh leaf (mm²), divided by its
199 oven-dry mass (mg) (Perez-Harguindeguy et al., 2013).

200 For each woody species, we collected one wood sample on ten individuals at 1 m height using
201 a tree corer. These wood samples were dried in an oven at 105 °C for 24 hours (Henry et al.,
202 2010). Wood density (WD) (g cm⁻³) of each sample was obtained as the ratio of the dry weight
203 divided by the volume which was measured using the change in volume after immersion in
204 distilled water in a beaker (cm³). The phosphomolybdic blue colorimetric technique (Anderson
205 and Ingram, 1993) and Kjeldahl method (Bradstreet, 1965) were used to determine P and N
206 concentration in leaves (LPC and LNC, respectively; mg.g⁻¹), respectively.

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211 **Calculation of taxonomic, structural and functional diversity indices**

212 For the woody species, we calculated at plot level different taxonomic diversity indices
213 including the number of woody species, the Shannon Wiener diversity index (H'), the Richness
214 (S) and the Pielou's evenness (E) using the Ecological Methodology software, version 7.

215 The community weighted mean (CWM) trait values and the functional divergence index
216 (FDvar) were used to determine the effects of dominant species (selection effect) and diversity
217 (niche complementary effect) (Tahmasebi et al., 2017; Rawat et al., 2019).

218 CWM were calculated using the trait value of each woody species weighted by its abundance
219 (Equation 2) whereas FDvar was computed using the variance among the traits values of the
220 plant species recorded on a plot and weighted by the abundance of each species in the
221 community (Equation 3) (Mason et al., 2005; Conti and Díaz, 2013; Ali et al., 2017; Wen et al.,
222 2021).

223

$$224 \quad CWM_x = \sum_{i=1}^S P_i T_i \quad (\text{Equation 2})$$

225

226

$$227 \quad FD_{var} = \frac{2}{\pi} \arctan(5V) \text{ and } V = \sum_{i=1}^S P_i (\ln T_i - \ln T)^2 \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

228

229

230 Where CWM_x is the CWM for trait x, S is the number of species in the community, T_i is the
231 trait value for the i^{th} species, P_i is the relative abundance of the i^{th} species in the community,
232 FDvar is the functional divergence index.

233 The structural indices of woody species including the mingling index (Equation 4), the height
234 and diameter differentiation indices (Equation 5) were calculated using the following equations
235 (Pommerening, 2002):

$$236 \quad M_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n V_{ij} \quad M_j \in [0, 1] \quad (\text{Equation 4})$$

237 where M_j is species mingling, n is the number of the nearest neighbors (n=3); $V_{ij} = 1$, if the
238 reference tree j and neighbor tree i are different tree and shrub species and 0 otherwise. High values
239 of this index represent a high species mixture or a high presence of other tree and shrub species.

240 In each plot, a woody species was randomly selected as the reference tree (i) and the three nearest
241 neighbor woody species (j) were marked to compute the following indices (Equation 5):

$$242 \quad T_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n T_{ij}$$

$$243 \quad T_{ij} = 1 - \frac{\min(DBH_i, DBH_j)}{\max(DBH_i, DBH_j)} \quad \text{or} \quad T_{ij} = 1 - \frac{\min(Height_i, Height_j)}{\max(Height_i, Height_j)} \quad T_i \in [0, 1] \quad (\text{Equation 5})$$

244 These equations were used for the three pairs of reference woody-neighbor woody species and the
245 T_{ij} indices were calculated as the mean of the three individual calculations. The higher value of
246 the index (close to 1) indicate a higher diversity in terms of tree size.

247

248 **Statistical analysis**

249 Prior to statistical analysis, the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were
250 checked using the Shapiro-Walk test and Levene test, respectively. The effects of dieback intensity
251 and management (protection vs. degradation) and their interactions on carbon storage were tested
252 using general linear models (GLMs) followed by post-hoc Duncan's multiple range test. Pearson's
253 correlation coefficients were used to evaluate the relationships between soil carbon storage and
254 structural, taxonomic and functional diversity indices. Stepwise multiple regressions between soil
255 carbon storage and different diversity approaches were produced to predict the main factors
256 affecting carbon storage. A principal component analysis (PCA, using PC-ORD version 5 software)
257 using the various diversity indices was performed to visualize plots distribution along the first two
258 axes of the analysis. We wanted to test if the various diversity indices (i.e. functional divergence,
259 functional composition, taxonomic and structural indices) were efficient in segregating the
260 different dieback intensity classes (no, low, moderate or high dieback intensity) in the two areas.

261

262

263 **Results**

264 **Effect of dieback and management on soil carbon storage**

265 Soil carbon storage was significantly influenced by the type of management, dieback intensity and
266 their interaction (Table 1). Soil carbon stocks were significantly higher in the protected area (95.90
267 ± 4.62 t/ha) than in the degraded area (76.52 ± 2.04 t/ha) and peaked in the low dieback intensity

268 class of the protected area (122.47 ± 10.12 t/ha), while no difference was found among the intensity
269 classes in the degraded area (Figure 2).

270 Soil carbon storage was positively correlated with structural, functional diversity (i.e. FDvar of
271 LDMC, H and WD) and taxonomic diversity indices except for species evenness (negative
272 correlation). Similarly, all structural and taxonomic diversity indices with the exception of
273 evenness, positively correlated with CWM of leaf phosphorus content (LPC) and specific leaf area
274 (SLA), and negatively with CWM of LNC, H and LDMC. It was noteworthy that the examination
275 of the correlation values with evenness revealed an exact opposite pattern as that observed with all
276 structural and taxonomic diversity indices (Figure 3).

277

278

279 **Models of soil carbon storage**

280 We produced models of soil carbon storage using either functional, taxonomic or structural
281 diversity indices as predictors. We found that all taxonomic diversity and all structural indices
282 were included in the final models as well as almost all of the CWM traits (CWM-LPC, CWM-
283 LNC, CWM-H, CWM-LDMC, and CWM-SLA). In contrast, for the functional divergence, only
284 FDvar-WD was found significant. Considering all the models, FDvar-WD, CWM-LDMC, species
285 richness (S) and mingling index (MI) were the best predictors of soil carbon storage for the
286 different diversity approaches (i.e., functional divergence (FD), functional composition (FC),
287 taxonomic diversity (TD) and structural diversity (SD)). Lastly, the final model taking into account
288 all types of indices (total model) showed that the mingling index (MI) alone was the best model to
289 predict changes in soil carbon storage ($R^2 = 0.173$; P-value = 0.002) along the dieback intensity
290 and management gradients (Table 2).

291

292 **Results of the PCA**

293 Results of the principal component analysis (PCA) using all types of indices showed that the first
294 two axes of the PCA represented a total variance of 78.37 % (59.48 % for the first axis and 18.89
295 % for the second axis). Projection of the plots showed that the degraded area was clearly separated
296 from the protected area along the first axis while, there was no clear separation among the dieback
297 intensity classes. Functional traits such as H, LNC, LDMC and species evenness were the most
298 important to identify plots of the degraded area as a group whatever the dieback intensity class,

299 while this role was played by diversity indices (MI, HD and DD) and species richness for plots of
300 the protected area (Figure 4 and Table 3). PCA analyses were also achieved by using only one type
301 of diversity approach (Appendix 1). By this method, we found that each approach was able to
302 separate the protected area from the degraded area but especially when using the structural and
303 CWM indices (Appendix 1a and 1b). In contrast, only the structural indices were able to segregate
304 the different dieback intensity classes, especially in the protected area. Plots belonging to the low
305 and moderate dieback intensity classes were characterized by similar mingling indices (Appendix
306 1d).

307
308

309 **Discussion**

310 **Influence of management and dieback intensity on soil carbon storage**

311 Our results clearly showed that soil carbon storage was higher in the protected area than in the
312 degraded area. Carbon sequestration rate is closely related to a large variety of factors including
313 taxonomic and structural characteristics of the forest stands (e.g. density, composition and species
314 diversity), land use change, past management actions (e.g. intense or conservative measures), as
315 well as soil properties (Lal, 2005; Jandl et al., 2007; Hammad et al., 2020; Tong et al., 2020). The
316 woody forest vegetation obviously plays a very important role in soil carbon storage in
317 sequestering atmospheric C in their wood biomass resulting from the process of photosynthesis
318 (Brown and Pearce, 1994). A too intensive forest management can reduce the forest cover and
319 limit the litter inputs, can decrease soil porosity by soil compaction or can enhance soil dryness
320 and leading to erosion of the soil surface. All these processes can impair the forest production
321 cycle and the storage of carbon in the soil (Upadhyay et al., 2005; Li et al., 2017). Land-use change,
322 and particularly deforestation, by changing the predominant type of vegetation also effectively
323 affects C fixation and soil respiration (Post and Kwon, 2000). Soil carbon storage is usually
324 reduced and the soil carbon fluxes also modify due to profound changes in the nature and activity
325 of soil CO₂ emitters (Dixon et al., 1994). We also noted a significant influence of dieback intensity
326 on soil carbon storage. More precisely, the highest amount of soil carbon storage was observed in
327 the low dieback intensity in the protected area while no change was recorded in the degraded area.
328 In the low dieback intensity class, only a small portion of the crown foliage (mainly leaves and
329 twigs) was lost increasing the inputs in easily decomposable organic matter. This process could

330 have increased soil carbon storage considering that all other environmental factors remained
331 favorable due to the absence of marked disturbances in this protected area. In contrast, when
332 dieback was more pronounced, the photosynthetic activity and growth were reduced which could
333 have limited the amount the stabilized carbon in the biomass and eventually the soil (Ryan et al.,
334 1997; Cook et al., 2008). Besides, in stands showing severe symptoms of dieback (i.e. with a large
335 portion of the canopy dried up), the quantity and quality of litter inputs are likely to be changed
336 (Cobb et al., 2013; Cobb and Rizzo, 2016). Microclimatic conditions are also modified particularly
337 due to the reduction of the canopy cover. In particular, the exposition of the soil surface to direct
338 sunlight is increased and the temperatures are more variable due to a loss of the buffering effect
339 by the overstorey vegetation. These more instable conditions and reduced inputs of organic matter
340 can limit soil microbial activity and decomposition which in turn limit soil carbon storage (Sanji
341 et al., 2020; Karmakar et al. 2016; Berenstecher et al., 2020). Consistent with our results, Pandey
342 et al. (2020) studying oak forests (*Quercus leucotrichophora*) in central Himalaya in degraded and
343 undisturbed conditions, showed that degradation reduced tree density, tree biomass and
344 consequently carbon sequestration up to 73% and total soil carbon storage up to 79%.

345 The humped-shape pattern of soil carbon storage along the dieback intensity gradient in the
346 protected area is in line with the intermediate disturbance hypothesis (Connell, 1978). According
347 to this hypothesis, ecosystem performance or ecosystem functions (such as soil C sequestration)
348 are maximized at low to medium disturbance intensities, while at the beginning and end of the
349 disturbance gradient (i.e. the control and the high dieback intensity in this study) they are reduced.
350 In our semi-arid oak forests and in absence of marked degradation, a minimal disturbance such as
351 a low defoliation comparable to a moderate natural pruning can reduce intra- and interspecific
352 competition and increase ecosystem function (Lin et al., 2018; Bai et al., 2020).

353

354 **Modeling soil carbon storage according to different diversity approaches**

355 The establishment of such relationships between species diversity and structural features of the
356 plant community and ecosystem functions is of a high interest to investigate key processes like
357 productivity or nutrient retention (e.g. Chen, 2006). It is noteworthy that the mingling index (a
358 structural index strongly associated with the changes in tree species proportions) (Keren et al.,
359 2020) can be a suitable index in expressing the amount soil carbon change because different woody
360 species have not same potential in litter (quality and quantity) production (Joly et al., 2017; Cakir

361 and Makineci, 2020; Heydari et al., 2020 b). The existence of positive relationships between
362 structural indices (mingling or DD and HD) and soil carbon storage clearly supports the niche
363 complementarity hypothesis and emphasizes the positive role of diversity in forest structural
364 features on ecosystem functions as reported by previous other studies (Lin et al., 2016; Fotis et al.,
365 2018). This result can be explained by considering the influence of the forest structure on soil
366 processes. In fact, soil carbon content is closely related to the composition and activity of
367 microorganisms involved in the decomposition process, which is controlled for a part by the
368 composition and structure of the stand (Van der Heijden et al. 1998; Tedeschi et al., 2006). Forest
369 dieback negatively affects soil carbon storage by eliminating some sensitive species, as shown by
370 a clear variation of mingling index value, and by changing stand structural characteristics as shown
371 by previous studies (Aynekulu et al., 2011; Tenzin and Hasenauer, 2016). Modification of the
372 species composition also implies a variation in biomass accumulation and litter production which
373 affect carbon storage in the ecosystem (e.g. Chen, 2006; Vesterdal et al., 2013). The role played
374 by structural indices is also more clearly visible along a gradient of dieback intensity: when the
375 dieback is pronounced, stand composition and structure are likely to be largely modified (Martin
376 et al., 2015; Renne et al., 2019) and soil carbon storage affected (Spielvogel et al., 2009; Xiong et al.,
377 2011). Similarly, taxonomic diversity indices are more efficient predictors of soil carbon storage
378 along the dieback intensity gradient than functional diversity indices. A possible explanation can
379 be a large functional redundancy among the species in our study area. The role played by a specific
380 species is also supported by other species, consequently the value of the functional index may
381 remain stable even if the species is removed from the community. Under these conditions, the
382 evenness index, which depends on the percentages of presence of the different species, can be
383 more efficient in showing the effect of different dieback intensities on ecosystem functions
384 (Omidipour et al., 2021). However, in the intense dieback intensity class where many species are
385 eliminated, the species richness index also performs well.

386 Woody species evenness was negatively related to soil carbon storage and previous studies have
387 also reported negative relationships between evenness and various ecosystem functions (Wilsey
388 and Potvin, 2000; Kardol et al., 2010; Vance-Chalcraft et al., 2010; Van Con et al., 2013) while
389 no significant relations were found in other studies (Weiher and Keddy, 1999; van Rooijen et al.,
390 2015). These apparently contradictory results may be explained by the differences in the
391 ecosystems and in the functions under study. In this regard, Omidipour et al. (2021) reported

392 negative relationships between evenness and ecosystem functions in steppe-desert and semi-steppe
393 regions but no significant relationships in Mediterranean rangelands of central Iran. In general,
394 evenness plays a more important role in areas where dominant species have a greater contribution
395 in ecosystem functions (Maestre and Reynolds, 2006; Omidipour et al., 2021). In these areas, the
396 increase in evenness which negatively influences ecosystem functions, is usually controlled by the
397 decrease in the abundance of the dominant species and the increase in the abundance of other
398 plants (Omidipour et al., 2021). These findings are consistent with the mass ratio hypothesis. This
399 hypothesis proposes that the rate of an ecosystem function such as biomass production is primarily
400 determined by the traits of the dominant species. The evenness index is sensitive to variation of
401 frequency rather than the number of species (Chapin Iii et al., 2000; Wilsey and Potvin, 2000). In
402 our study area, oak is the by far the dominant woody species which frequency is primarily affected
403 by the forest dieback, this can explain why evenness is a significant predictor of ecosystem
404 functions (Mulder et al., 2004).

405 Among all the community-weighted mean (CWM) traits, CWM-LDMC showed a negative
406 relationship with soil carbon storage. In the degraded area with a low soil carbon storage, the
407 dominant oak trees are old and large and produce thick lignin-rich leaves explaining high LDMC
408 values (König et al., 2018). Some studies indicated that high LDMC values in a community are
409 related to the predominance of conservative species growing in a low-production environment
410 similar to the degraded area in this study (Garnier et al., 2004; Finegan et al., 2015). The SLA
411 index was positively correlated with soil carbon storage. Leaf is the most important carbon-
412 stabilizing organ during photosynthesis and therefore leaf properties have a high ability to predict
413 carbon storage (Tahmasebi et al., 2017). Functional characteristics of plants related to
414 photosynthetic such as CWM-SLA play an important role in ecosystem carbon storage and carbon
415 balance (De Deyn et al., 2008; Finegan et al., 2015). Therefore, the high CWM-SLA values of
416 wood species in the protected area at low dieback intensity can be related to an enhanced
417 photosynthetic efficiency explaining a positive effect on ecosystem carbon storage.

418 The combined use of all diversity assessment approaches was able to separate management
419 conditions (the degraded vs. protected area) but not the different dieback intensity classes. Used
420 separately, each approach –but especially the structural and CWM approaches- was effective in
421 separating protected and degraded areas. However, only structural indicators proved efficient in
422 segregating the different dieback intensities, especially in the protected area. These results put

423 forward that most diversity indices and trait values are primarily influenced by anthropogenic
424 disturbances and management actions while the effect of dieback is less pronounced at least at low
425 intensity.

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428

429 **Conclusion**

430 In this study, we have investigated the predictability of soil carbon storage by taxonomic,
431 functional and structural diversity approaches under different management conditions (protected
432 vs. degraded) and along a dieback intensity gradient. We found that soil carbon storage was clearly
433 improved in the preserved area compared to the degraded area and was the highest in the low
434 dieback intensity class of the protected area. This result emphasizes the positive role played by a
435 moderate disturbance which can reduce intra- and interspecific competition and maximize
436 ecosystem function in line with the intermediate disturbance hypothesis. The structural diversity
437 indices were the best predictors of soil carbon storage followed by the taxonomic diversity and
438 functional composition indices, in contrast to the functional divergence indices. Therefore, the use
439 of such structural diversity indices can be efficient tools to increase our understanding of changes
440 in soil carbon storage which represents a key ecosystem function in semiarid forests. Besides, the
441 positive correlation of the structural, composition and taxonomic diversity indices as well as the
442 negative correlation of species evenness and functional composition (CWM of LNC, H and
443 LDMC) with soil carbon storage provide evidence to support both the mass-ratio and niche
444 complementary hypotheses.

445

446

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453

454 **Authorship contribution statement**

455 **Mona Karami:** Data curation, Investigation, Writing-original draft; **Ali Sheykholeslami:**
456 Supervision, Investigation, Writing-review & editing; **Mehdi Heydari:** Conceptualization,
457 Methodology, Data curation, Resources, Formal analysis, Software, Visualization, Supervision,
458 Writing -original draft, Writing -review & editing; **Majid Eshagh Nimvari:** Writing -review &
459 editing; **Reza Omidipour:** Formal analysis, Software, Writing -original draft, Writing -review &
460 editing; **Bernard Prevosto:** Writing -review & editing.

461

462 **Conflicts of Interest**

463 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
464 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

465

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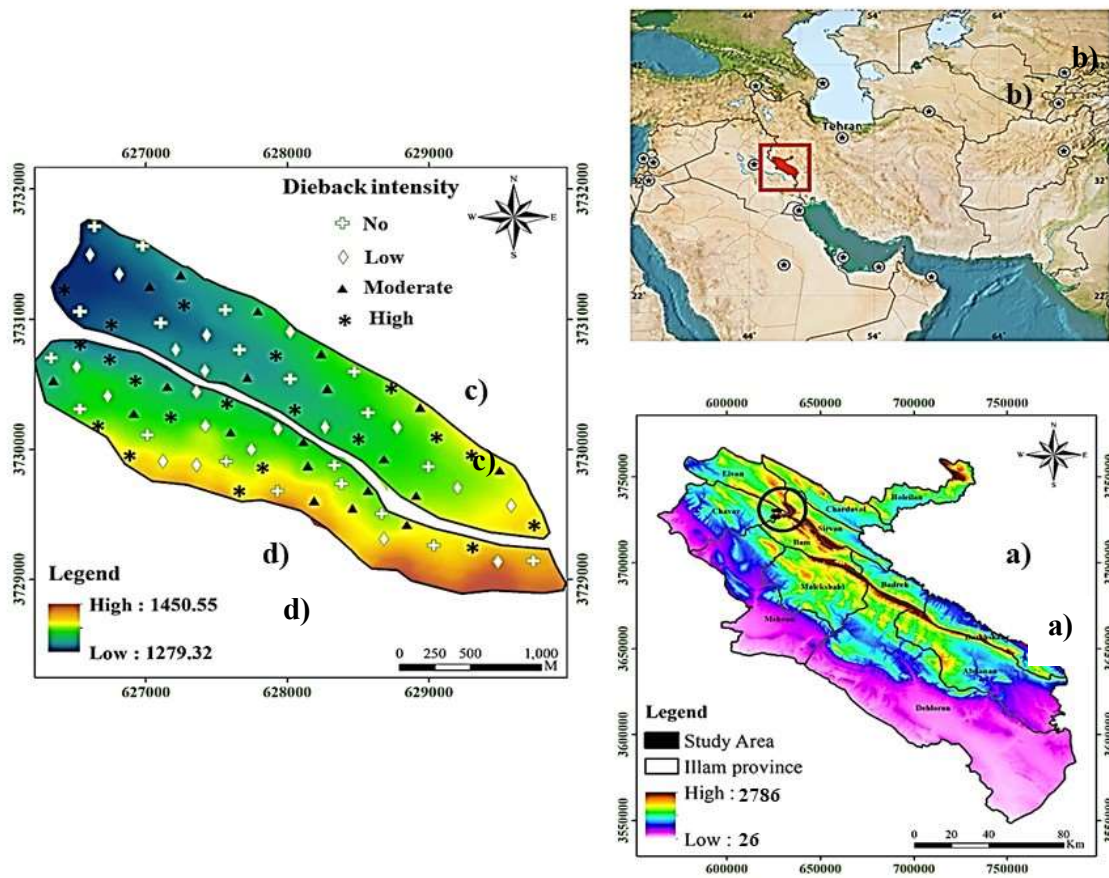
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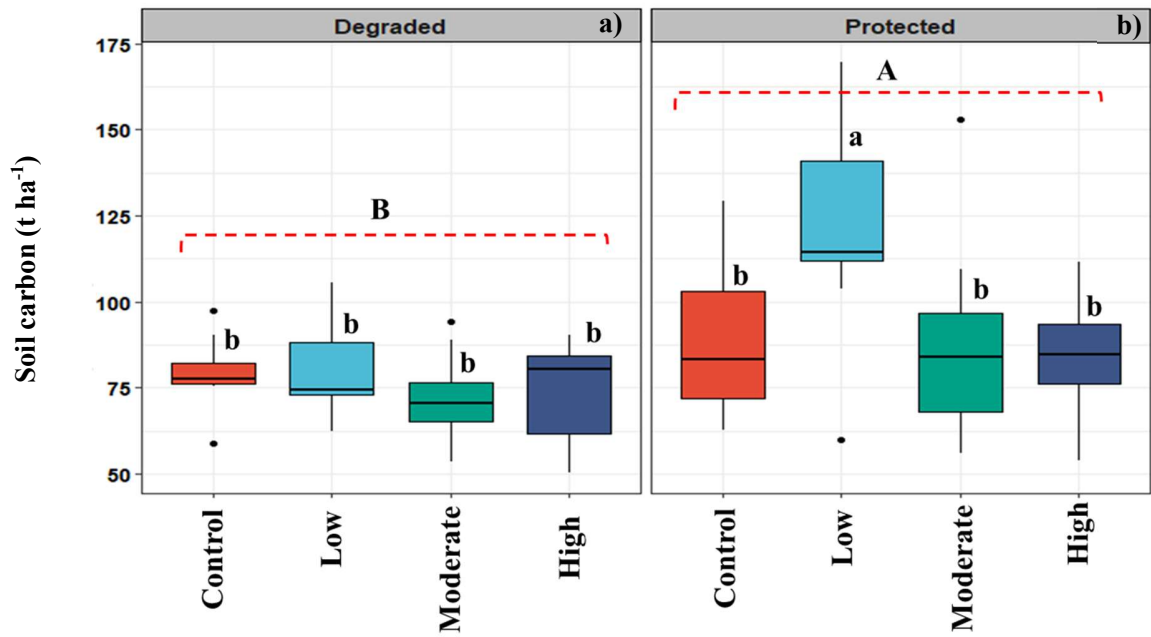
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 771 Fig 1. Location of the study area in Ilam province (a), west of Iran (b), the degraded area (c)
 772 and the protected area (d).
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787 Fig 2. Comparison of the mean soil carbon storage between the different dieback intensity classes
788 in degraded (a) and protected (b) areas. Uppercase letters indicate significant differences between
789 the two areas and lowercase among the intensity classes within the same area (Duncan's multiple
790 range test).

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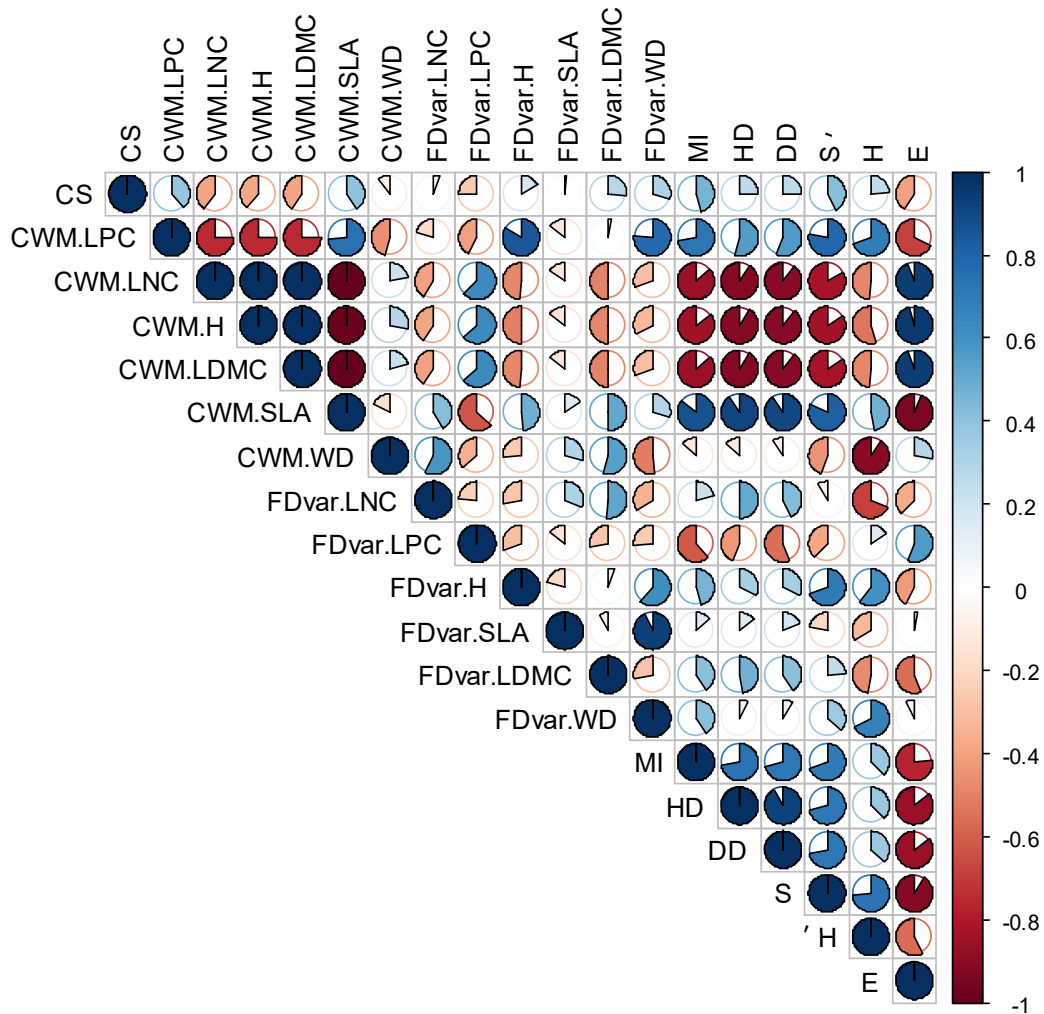
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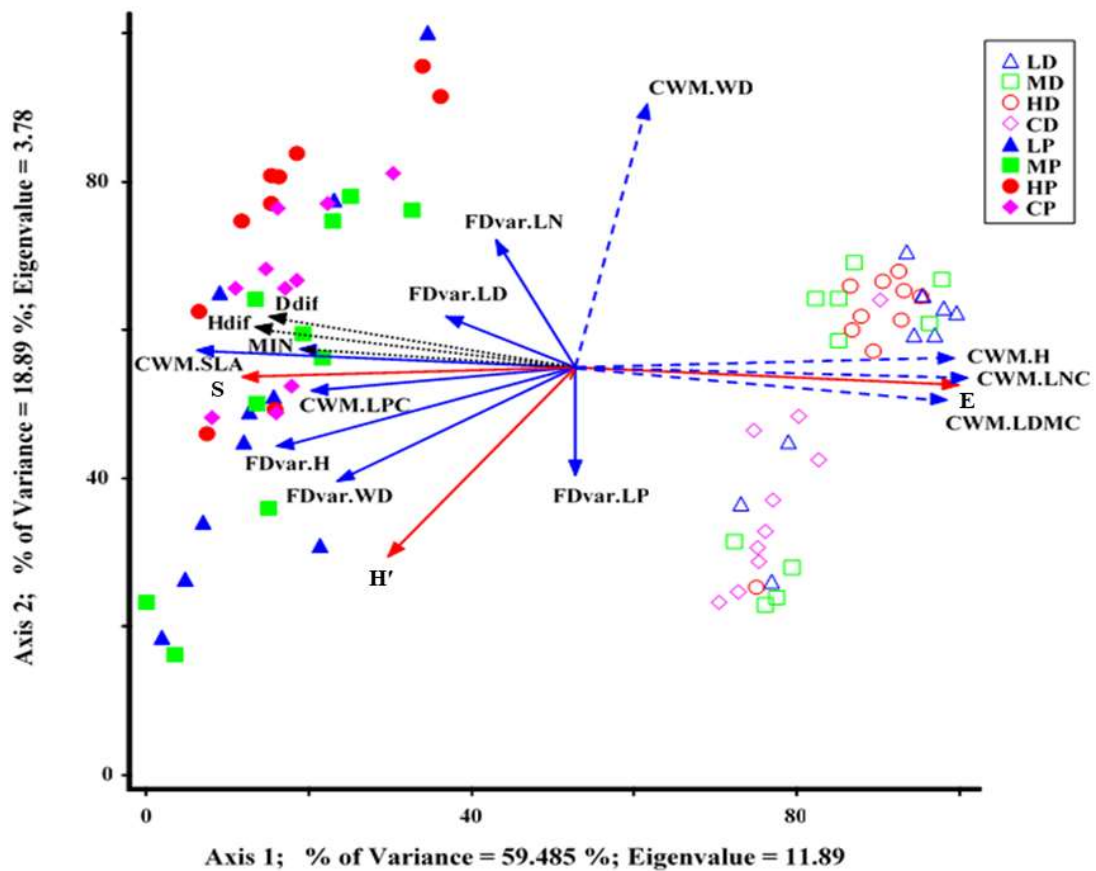
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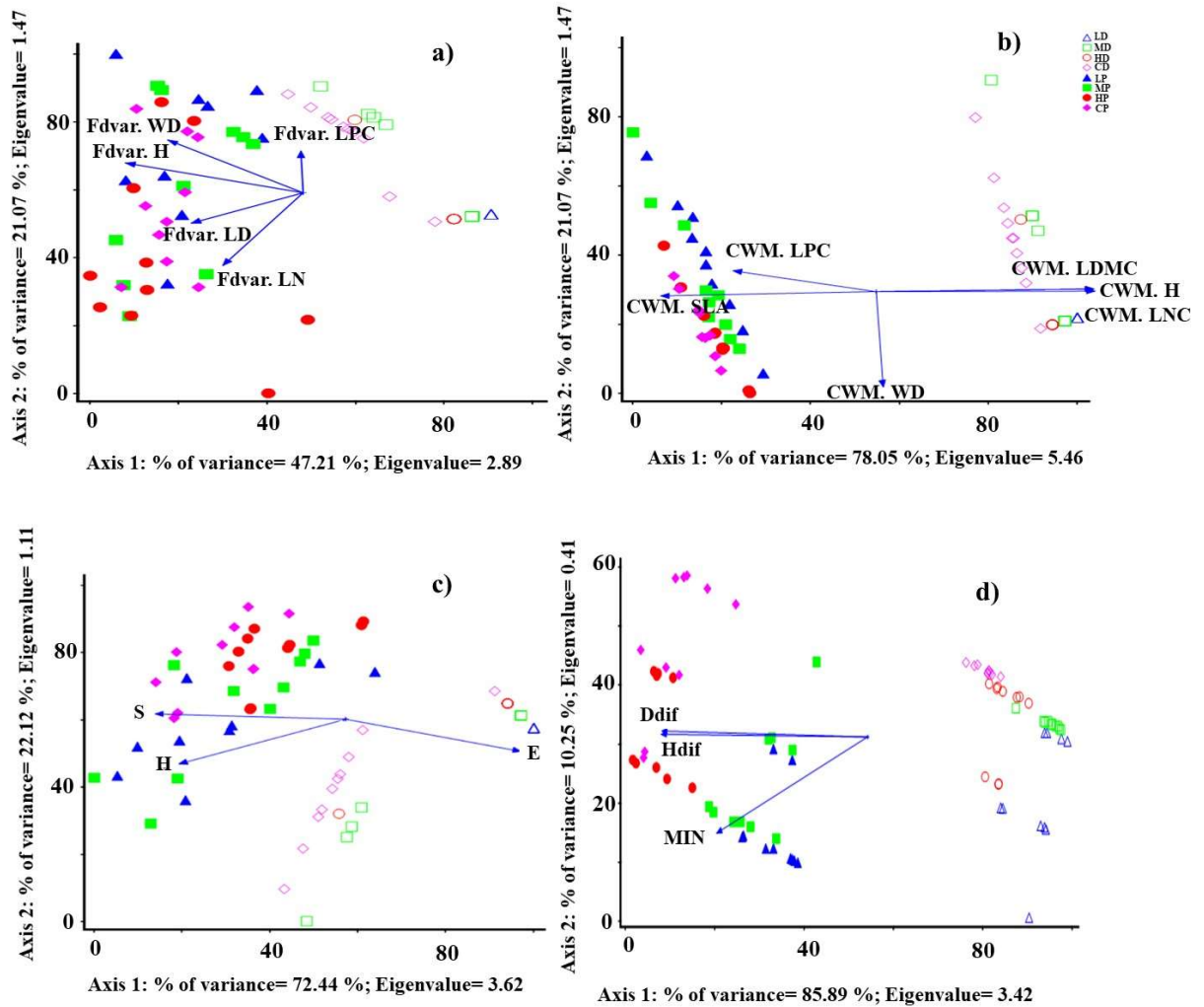
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Fig 3. Heat map for Pearson's correlation coefficients between soil carbon storage and structural, taxonomic and functional diversity indices; the color and size of the pie chart denotes the magnitude and direction of the relationship (red and blue circles represent negative and positive correlation, respectively); CS: carbon storage, CWM: community weighted mean, Fdvar: functional divergence, LPC: leaf phosphorus concentration, LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody species height, LDMC: leaf dry-matter content, SLA: specific leaf area, WD: wood density, MI: mingling index, HD: height differentiation, DD: diameter differentiation, S: Richness, H': Shannon–Wiener index and E: evenness



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 818 Fig 4. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ordination diagram showing the distribution of the
 819 plots along the first two axes based on all diversity approaches i.e. including functional divergence
 820 of woody species (solid blue arrows), functional composition of woody species (blue dotted
 821 arrows), taxonomic diversity (solid red arrows) and structural diversity of woody species (black
 822 dotted arrows); CWM: community weighted mean, FDvar: functional divergence, LPC: leaf
 823 phosphorus concentration, LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody species height,
 824 LDMC: leaf dry-matter content, SLA: specific leaf area, WD: wood density, MI: mingling index,
 825 HDif: height differentiation, Ddif: diameter differentiation, S: Richness, H': Shannon–Wiener
 826 index and E: evenness. Plots are identified by two letters, the first letter refers to the dieback
 827 intensity class (L, M, H, C) i.e. low, medium, high or control (no dieback), while the second letter
 828 (D, P) refers to the degraded or protected area. Blank and solid symbols indicate degraded and
 829 protected areas, respectively.

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832 Appendix 1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ordination diagrams showing distribution of

833 the plots along the first two axes when using only one diversity approach; functional divergence

834 (a), functional composition (b), taxonomic diversity indices (c) and structural indices (d); CWM:

835 community weighted mean, Fdvar: functional divergence, LPC: leaf phosphorus concentration,

836 LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody species height, LDMC: leaf dry-matter

837 content, SLA: specific leaf area, WD: wood density, MI: mingling index, HDif: height

838 differentiation, Ddif: diameter differentiation, S: Richness, H': Shannon–Wiener index and E:

839 evenness. Plots are identified by two letters, the first letter refers to the dieback intensity class (L,

840 M, H, C) i.e. low, medium, high or control (no dieback), while the second letter refers (D and P)

841 to the degraded or protected area. Blank and solid symbols indicate degraded and protected areas,
842 respectively.

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844 Table 1. Results of the GLM with dieback intensity, management and their interaction as fixed
845 factors and soil carbon storage as dependent variables. The statistics are degrees of freedom (df),
846 mean square (MS), F-value (F) and levels of significance (*** P < 0.001, ** P < 0.01, * P < 0.05).

847	Source of variation	soil carbon storage		
		df	MS	F
848	Dieback intensity	3	2229.2	5.40***
849	management	1	7556.7	18.31***
	Dieback intensity × Dieback intensity	3	1124.5	2.71 *

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872 Table 2. Results of multiple regressions between soil carbon storage and different diversity
873 approaches (functional divergence (FD), functional composition (FC), taxonomic diversity (TD)
874 and structural diversity (SD))

Diversity approaches	Variable included in the multiple regression	The final model	R ²	p
FD	FDvar-WD	CS = 86.27 FDvar-WD + 72.77	0.088	0.034
FC	CWM-LPC, CWM-LNC, CWM-H, CWM-LDMC, CWM-SLA	CS = - 0.034 CWM-LDMC + 96.23	0.158	0.000
TD	S, H', E	CS = 6.76 S + 68.76	0.173	0.000
SD	MI, HD, DD	CS = 27.21 MI + 74.26	0.214	0.000
Total model	FDvar-WD, CWM-LDMC, S, MI	CS = 27.28 MI + 75.28	0.173	0.002

875 CS: carbon storage, CWM: community weighted mean, FDvar: functional divergence, LPC: leaf phosphorus
876 concentration, LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody species height, LDMC: leaf dry-matter content,
877 SLA: specific leaf area, WD: wood density, MI: mingling index, HD: height differentiation, DD: diameter
878 differentiation, S: Richness, H': Shannon–Wiener index and E: evenness

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 898 Table 3. Pearson's coefficients of correlation between PCA scores and the different diversity
 899 indices

Diversity approach	Indices	PC 1	PC 2
Functional composition	CWM.LPC	-0.8 **	-0.25
	CWM.LNC	0.968 **	-0.22
	CWM.H	0.98 **	-0.16
	CWM.LDMC	0.968 **	-0.22
	CWM.SLA	-0.96 **	0.248
	CWM.WD	0.419 *	0.844 **
Functional diversity	FDvar.LNC	-0.44 *	0.587 *
	FDvar.LPC	0.001	-0.54 *
	FDvar.H	-0.89 **	-0.35
	FDvar.SLA	-0.14	0.33
	FDvar.LDMC	-0.56 *	0.370
	FDvar.WD	-0.76 **	-0.55 *
Structural diversity	MI	-0.82 **	0.224
	Hdif	-0.88 **	0.305
	Ddif	-0.87 **	0.314
Taxonomic diversity	R	-0.9 **	-0.16
	H'	-0.68 *	-0.72 **
	E	0.956 **	-0.11

900 Note: * and ** represent significant correlation at 0.05 and 0.01; CWM: community weighted mean, Fdvar:
 901 functional divergence, LPC: leaf phosphorus concentration, LNC: leaf nitrogen concentration, H: mean of woody
 902 species height, LDMC: leaf dry-matter content, SLA: specific leaf area, WD: wood density, MI: mingling index,
 903 HDif: height differentiation, Ddif: diameter differentiation, S: Richness, H': Shannon–Wiener index and E:
 904 evenness

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