

Climatic disequilibrium threatens conservation priority forests

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26 **Abstract**

27 We test the hypothesis that climatic changes since 1800 have resulted in unrealised potential vegetation
28 changes that represent a 'climatic debt' for many ecosystems. Caledonian pinewoods, an EU priority
29 forest type, are used as a model system to explore potential impacts of two centuries of climatic change
30 upon sites of conservation importance and surrounding landscapes. Using methods that estimate
31 topographic microclimate, current and pre-industrial climates were estimated for 50 m grid cells and
32 simulations made using a dynamic vegetation model. Core Caledonian pinewood areas are now less
33 suitable for growth of pine and more favourable for oak than in 1800, whereas landscapes as a whole are
34 on average more favourable for both. The most favourable areas for pine are now mainly outside areas
35 designated to conserve historical pinewoods. A paradigm shift is needed in formulating conservation
36 strategies to avoid catastrophic losses of this habitat, and of many others globally with trees or other long-
37 lived perennials as keystone species.

38 Introduction

39 Biodiversity conservation strategies often focus upon site-based conservation of habitats characterised by
40 their vegetation composition (e.g. EU Habitats and Species Directive, Council of the European Union
41 1992). Implicit in many of these strategies is an assumption that a site's current vegetation reflects the
42 current climate. Numerous studies have addressed species' potential responses to projected future
43 climatic changes, and the implications of these responses for biodiversity conservation strategies (see e.g.
44 Araújo et al. 2004; Bagchi et al. 2013; Hole et al. 2011). Historically rapid climatic change, however,
45 began two centuries ago in some regions, driven by increases in greenhouse gas concentrations since
46 1750 (Hartmann et al. 2013). These climatic changes have elicited various species' responses, including
47 geographical range shifts (Mason et al. 2015; Parmesan 2006). Even mobile species' responses,
48 however, often lag behind climatic changes resulting in a 'climatic debt' (Devictor et al. 2012). To-date,
49 potential vegetation responses to historical climatic changes have received little attention. Given the
50 inertia of plant communities, most of which are dominated by long-lived species (Smith 1965), and the
51 importance of relatively infrequent disturbance events in facilitating such communities' responses to
52 climatic change (Bradshaw and Zackrisson 1990; Prentice et al. 1991), however, it is possible that much of
53 Earth's vegetation has accumulated a climatic debt.

54 Our primary aim was to test the hypothesis that climatic changes since 1800 have resulted in potential
55 vegetation changes across landscapes of conservation importance. We chose the Caledonian pinewoods
56 (Figure S1, Supplementary Information) as a model system to investigate because they lie at the climatic
57 margin of Eurasian boreal forests, representing their south-westernmost and most oceanic extremity. It is
58 likely, therefore, that their geographical extent is climatically constrained, and we thus hypothesised that
59 they might be particularly sensitive to climatic warming. Our results show clear evidence of substantial
60 climatic debt, with areas currently most climatically suitable for *Pinus sylvestris* (Scots Pine), the keystone
61 species of this priority forest type, not coinciding with historical pinewoods identified as conservation
62 targets. This has far-reaching implications for biodiversity conservation strategies because many forest
63 types, as well as other vegetation types dominated by long-lived perennials, likely have accumulated similar
64 climatic debts.

65 **Materials and Methods**

66 ***Forest type***

67 Scotland's Caledonian pinewoods (Figure S1, Supplementary Information), dominated by *Pinus sylvestris*,
68 are identified as a priority forest type by the EU Habitats and Species Directive (Council of the European
69 Union 1992). As the only priority forest type restricted to Scotland they are of particular regional
70 conservation importance. They support an assemblage of boreal species, many close to or at their south-
71 westernmost and/or most oceanic range margin. They are also the habitat of *Loxia scotica* (Scottish
72 Crossbill), the United Kingdom's only endemic bird. The present Caledonian pinewoods are scattered
73 remnants of forests that expanded across the Scottish Highlands ca. 8800–5800 years ago (Birks 1989),
74 thereafter dominating large areas (McVean and Ratcliffe 1962) until decimated in recent centuries by
75 extensive felling, particularly during the two world wars (Darling 1947). Ten Special Areas of Conservation
76 (SACs) have been designated for their protection, together representing > 85% of their remaining area
77 (JNCC).

78 ***Study landscapes***

79 We examined three landscapes spanning the latitudinal extent of remnant Caledonian pinewoods, namely
80 Glen Affric, Glen Achall and Rannoch (Figure S1, Supplementary Information). The latter two include the
81 Rhidorroch and Black Wood of Rannoch Caledonian pinewood SACs. All three are of high relief,
82 dominated by west–east trending valleys, and have remnant Caledonian pinewoods mainly on north-facing
83 slopes (Figure 1, Figures S2 and S3, Supplementary Information). 'Core areas' of native Caledonian
84 pinewood in each landscape were mapped following the Caledonian Pinewoods Inventory (Forestry
85 Commission 1999) that recorded the extents of native pinewoods identified by Steven and Carlisle (1959).
86 Only 'core areas' were considered because these had trees ≤ 50 m apart and other attributes identifying
87 them as historical native woodlands. The landscapes also support upland birch woodlands, generally at
88 higher elevations and dominated by *Betula pubescens* (Downy Birch). Rannoch and Glen Affric have
89 small areas of upland oak woodland, mainly at lower elevations and/or on south-facing slopes, mostly
90 dominated by *Quercus petraea* (Sessile Oak), and often with *Corylus avellana* (Hazel) present. Upland
91 ash woodland, dominated by *Fraxinus excelsior* (Ash) with *C. avellana* and *Ulmus glabra* (Wych Elm),
92 occupies low elevation areas underlain by Durness Limestone at the west end of Glen Achall. Higher
93 elevation areas of all three landscapes support mosaics of dwarf-shrub heathlands, blanket peatlands,

94 grasslands and montane communities. All three include extensive areas modified by human land use,
95 with areas of plantation forestry at Rannoch and Glen Affric, and predominance of non-woodland
96 vegetation below the potential treeline reflecting current and historical grazing and burning (Burnett 1964).

97 ***Experimental design***

98 We tested our hypothesis by simulating each landscape's potential vegetation at 50 m grid resolution under
99 recent (1981–2010) conditions and those prevailing two centuries ago (1786–1815). We performed these
100 simulations using the process-based dynamic vegetation–ecosystem model LPJ-GUESS (see
101 Supplementary Information for details). Recent climatic conditions were obtained from datasets compiled
102 by the UK Meteorological Office (Perry and Hollis 2005; UKMO 2012). Historical climatic conditions were
103 estimated from monthly temperature and precipitation time series as described below. Recent $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$
104 was specified as 350 ppmv, whereas for the historical simulation 280 ppmv was used following ice-core
105 evidence (Etheridge et al. 1996). A 1:250,000 peat-depth map for Scotland (Bown et al. 1982) was
106 sampled at points corresponding to the centres of the 50 m grid cells. These were classified as having
107 organic or mineral soil, according to whether peat depth was ≥ 0.5 m or < 0.5 m respectively. The influence
108 of complex topography on microclimate was captured by downscaling regional climatic conditions to the
109 50 m grid as described below. Each grid cell's estimated climate was used to drive an LPJ-GUESS
110 simulation for a single 0.1 ha patch in that cell. Impacts of changes in climate and $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$ over the past
111 two centuries were explored by mapping simulated aNPP of individual PFTs and PFT combinations, and by
112 computing relative differences between the two experiments in mean simulated aNPP of PFTs across the
113 whole of each landscape and for Caledonian pinewood core areas within each.

114 ***Historical climate estimates***

115 Monthly mean temperature and precipitation anomalies for 1786–1815 relative to 1981–2010 were
116 estimated using long-term meteorological records available from the UK Meteorological Office (Alexander
117 and Jones 2000; Parker et al. 1992; UK Met Office 2016). Unfortunately, neither the temperature nor
118 precipitation dataset for Northern Scotland extends to the pre-industrial period, whereas the Hadley Centre
119 Central England Temperature (HadCET – 1772–2015) (Parker et al. 1992) and England and Wales
120 Precipitation (part of HadUKP – 1766–2015) (Alexander and Jones 2000) datasets both do so. In order to
121 estimate monthly anomalies for the pre-industrial period for Scotland, we therefore regressed the available
122 time series for Northern Scotland (temperature 1910–2012 (UK Met Office 2016); precipitation 1931–2010

(Alexander and Jones 2000)) onto the relevant years of the longer time series. The resulting regressions mostly showed highly significant relationships (see Tables S1 and S2, Supplementary Information) and were used to estimate monthly values for 1786–1815 for Northern Scotland from the longer time series. Thirty-year means of the monthly values were calculated and anomalies generated by subtracting the 1981–2010 from the 1786–1815 mean (temperature) or calculating the ratio of the 1786–1815 mean to that for 1981–2010 (precipitation).

Microclimate estimates

Within-landscape patterns in solar radiation, temperature and effective precipitation were estimated by downscaling data for the recent period using a digital terrain model (DTM), and extrapolated to the historical period using a change-factor approach.

Downscaling was carried out using a combination of: (i) gridded (5 x 5 km) data interpolated from the national network of meteorological stations and available at daily (temperature) or monthly (precipitation and sunshine hours) temporal resolution (Perry and Hollis 2005); (ii) hourly meteorological station data for 1981–2010 (UKMO 2012), obtained from the UK Meteorological Office; and (iii) a 10 m resolution DTM (Ordnance Survey 2012) resampled to the 50 m grid. Minimum temperatures were downscaled by modifying regional air temperatures (interpolated from the 5 km data using a linear regression against latitude, longitude and elevation) to incorporate the influence of cold-air drainage using an elevation difference approach (Bennie et al. 2010). Maximum temperatures were downscaled in a similar way, taking into account how slope, aspect and hill-shading influence solar radiation reaching the vegetation surface (Bennie et al. 2008), using this to scale each grid cell's diurnal temperature range. Monthly mean temperatures were calculated as the mean of the daily minimum and maximum temperature series. The amount of precipitation reaching a grid cell was modelled in relation to topographic position; this amount was then modified by re-distributing run-off using a TOPMODEL approach (Beven et al. 1984). Downscaling methods are further detailed in the Supplementary Information.

LPJ-GUESS

Simulations used 22 PFTs (Table 1 & Table S5, Supplementary Information) representing the principal tree, shrub, dwarf-shrub and herbaceous taxa found in the landscapes. Some PFTs corresponded to species (e.g. *Pinus sylvestris*) or species groups (e.g. *Quercus* spp.), whereas others represented species sharing

151 functional traits but not necessarily within the same clade (e.g. boreal evergreen shrub). Parameterisation
152 of PFTs followed Allen *et al.* (2010) with two minor exceptions. Firstly, for graminoid PFTs values of zero
153 for the *phengdd5ramp* parameter were replaced by values of one (to overcome a divide-by-zero error that
154 arose when transferring the program from a Windows platform to a Linux environment). Secondly, *P.*
155 *sylvestris* establishment was restricted to soils whose water content fell to <0.8 of field capacity during at
156 least June–August. Without this restriction it established and grew on very wet soils where field
157 observations showed seedlings generally failed to establish, those that did so failing to thrive, probably
158 because a suitable mycorrhizal associate was absent. Other parameters followed Allen *et al.* (2010),
159 except only one patch was simulated in each grid cell. Two simulations were made for each landscape,
160 one using recent and one historical climatic conditions and $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$. Simulations ran for 1500 years
161 starting from bare landscapes, the first 500 years being a spin-up period; aNPP of each PFT in each grid
162 cell was averaged over years 501–1500 of the simulations.

163 **Results**

164 Annual mean temperature in northern Scotland was estimated to have increased by 0.69°C since 1800,
165 with greater warming in winter (September–February mean increase 0.85°C) (Table 2). Total annual
166 precipitation hardly changed, although with a slight tendency for less summer and more winter precipitation
167 (Table 2).

168 In all three landscapes, mean simulated aNPP of *Pinus sylvestris* in Caledonian pinewood core areas was
169 significantly lower under present than pre-industrial conditions, whereas in the overall landscape it had
170 increased (Table 1, Figure 2, Table S3, Supplementary Information). The greatest relative decrease was
171 in the Rhidorroch pinewoods of the northernmost landscape, whereas the largest relative increase was for
172 the Rannoch landscape, the most southerly site with the highest mean simulated *P. sylvestris* aNPP.
173 Decreases in mean values for core areas reflected both generally reduced *P. sylvestris* aNPP and an
174 increased number of 50 m grid cells within these areas with zero simulated *P. sylvestris* aNPP (Black Wood
175 of Rannoch: pre-industrial 4.77%, present 13.01%; Glen Affric: pre-industrial 35.36%, present 39.83%;
176 Rhidorroch: pre-industrial 87.74%, present 93.03%). At Black Wood of Rannoch mean aNPP of the 5%
177 of 50 m grid cells with the highest *P. sylvestris* aNPP values was only marginally lower for present than pre-
178 industrial conditions, indicating that small areas within the SAC remain favourable for *P. sylvestris*.

179 Rhidorroch also had only slightly reduced mean aNPP of the 5% of 50 m grid cells with the highest *P.*
180 *sylvestris* aNPP values, whereas at Glen Affric there was a small increase.

181 In all three landscapes the relative decrease in *P. sylvestris* aNPP in Caledonian pinewood core areas was
182 paralleled by relative decreases in those areas of aNPP of other tree PFTs of a boreal character (e.g.
183 *Betula* (tree), *Populus tremula*) and of non-tree PFTs, whereas aNPP of tree PFTs characteristic of the
184 nemoral zone (e.g. *Quercus*, *Alnus glutinosa*) showed relative increases in these areas (Figure 2, Table 1).
185 Nemoral trees also increased in simulated aNPP in the overall landscapes, as did the boreal trees including
186 *P. sylvestris*, and as in general did the dwarf shrub and forb PFTs. Graminoids, however, decreased in
187 the overall landscapes. Although having the greatest relative increase only at Black Wood of Rannoch,
188 absolute aNPP values for *Quercus* were much higher than those of other nemoral tree PFTs and it
189 increased markedly in core Caledonian pinewood areas of all three landscapes (Table S4, Supplementary
190 Information).

191 Our results showed three other features relevant to efforts to conserve Caledonian pinewoods, especially in
192 the context of projected future climatic changes. Firstly, they emphasised that the present predominantly
193 unwooded, treeless character of the three landscapes, and of Scottish Highland landscapes generally, is
194 largely a consequence of historical and ongoing human activities (Burnett 1964). Simulated tree and
195 shrub aNPP indicated potential present forest and woodland extents much greater than those of remnant
196 native woodlands (Figures S4–6, Supplementary Information). Secondly, a particular consequence of
197 these human activities is absence of *P. sylvestris* from large areas at intermediate elevations relatively
198 favourable for its growth. It is excluded from these areas principally by high intensities of both Red Deer
199 (*Cervus elaphus*) and Sheep (*Ovis aries*) grazing, as well as often by deliberate relatively frequent burning.
200 Especially under the present climate, however, these areas are generally more favourable for *P. sylvestris*
201 growth than are core areas of remnant Caledonian pinewoods. This pattern is likely to be even more
202 marked under future projected climatic conditions. Thirdly, climatic changes of the past two centuries
203 have rendered large parts of all three landscapes, especially at lower elevations, more favourable for
204 growth of *Quercus* and other nemoral trees. In particular, in all three landscapes core areas of Caledonian
205 pinewoods are, under present climatic conditions, much more favourable for growth of *Quercus* than of *P.*
206 *sylvestris* (Figure 1, Figures S2 and S3, Supplementary Information).

207 Discussion

208 These findings have important implications not just for conservation of Caledonian pinewoods, but for
209 formulating and implementing conservation strategies globally. They show that there is an urgent need for
210 conservation strategies to look beyond the current paradigm of designating sites for conservation on the
211 basis of their present vegetation. Whilst many bodies concerned with biodiversity conservation have
212 recognised the need for strategies that take a dynamic view with respect to individual species' spatial
213 responses to climatic change (see e.g. Hopkins et al. 2007; RSPB 2008), the need also to recognise the
214 importance of landscape-scale ecosystem dynamics is less widely acknowledged. The need for strategies
215 to look beyond protected areas, recognising that species must move across the wider landscape in order to
216 adapt to climatic change, is widely acknowledged (see e.g. Dickinson et al. 2015; European Union 2013;
217 Hopkins et al. 2007; Huntley 2007; Lawton et al. 2010). The possibility that priority habitats may already
218 be unsustainable within areas designated for their protection must also be taken into account. That many
219 species already have accumulated a climatic debt, having failed fully to adapt to historical climatic change,
220 also is now widely accepted (see e.g. Devictor et al. 2008; Devictor et al. 2012). That ecosystems too
221 may have accumulated substantial climatic debts, however, is not generally recognised. Finally, there is a
222 need to take a longer-term view than those that typify most, if not all, current biodiversity strategies,
223 because longevity of the 'keystone' plant species means terrestrial ecosystem dynamics in many cases
224 have inherent timescales of centuries. Strategies that consider only decades are unlikely to succeed in
225 the longer term. Furthermore, we already have committed the Earth to at least several centuries of
226 climatic change and elevated $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{atm}}$, because the Earth system includes relatively slow components that
227 will take centuries to regain 'equilibrium', notably polar ice sheets and land-surface properties that are
228 determined largely by the nature of the vegetation.

229 In the particular case of the Caledonian pinewoods, unless an appropriate approach is adopted that
230 recognises their existing climatic debt, the need to accommodate their spatial dynamics at landscape
231 scales, and the time scales over which these dynamics take place, then substantial losses seem inevitable.
232 Areas most favourable for *Pinus sylvestris* growth now and in the future, but from which it is currently
233 absent, urgently need to be identified and protected. Our results provide guidance about the locations of
234 such areas in the landscapes examined, where they are generally at higher altitudes than the remnant
235 pinewoods. In most cases active management of these areas will be needed to encourage colonisation by

236 *P. sylvestris*, including sowing of seed harvested from remnant native pinewoods (RSPB 2014) because
237 these are often sufficiently distant from areas now suitable for colonisation that natural seed dispersal may
238 be inadequate. Such measures are not alternatives to established efforts to sustain remnant pinewoods
239 (Scottish Natural Heritage 2015), but a necessary complement to those efforts. These remnant
240 woodlands are not only a vital seed source for colonisation of new areas, but in the short term will continue
241 to provide the habitat necessary for species requiring mature areas of this forest type (e.g. *Loxia scotica*).
242 It is thus necessary to strive to maintain them, so far as this is possible, until newly colonised areas mature
243 sufficiently to provide habitat for such associated species. Continuing climatic change, however, will
244 render this increasingly difficult, especially if it favours pests and pathogens that could potentially cause
245 widespread and rapid mortality of *P. sylvestris*, such as the fungal pathogen causing *Dothistroma* needle
246 blight (Scottish Natural Heritage 2015).

247 All ecosystems dominated by long-lived perennial plants will show similar inertia and are likely therefore to
248 have accumulated similar climatic debts. There is thus a pressing need for a paradigm shift in the
249 formulation of global biodiversity conservation strategies. These strategies must recognise the extent to
250 which present vegetation, especially forests, has likely accumulated a climatic debt, rendering efforts to
251 maintain it in its present state and/or present location ineffective in the longer term. Instead, sites with
252 current and future potential to support valued vegetation types must be identified, designated and actively
253 managed to accelerate the vegetation dynamic processes that will transform the vegetation (e.g. RSPB
254 2014). Such a strategy will be particularly valuable and successful in high-relief landscapes, where
255 required species' displacements are over relatively short distances. Civil society engagement in strategies
256 to conserve ecosystems will also be easier when those ecosystems are familiar to and valued by the local
257 population (e.g. RSPB 2014).

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262 the microclimate estimates; YCC calculated the pre-industrial climatic anomalies and performed the LPJ-
263 GUESS experiments; JRMA developed the PFT definitions used, set up the LPJ-GUESS experimental
264 framework and performed initial processing of the LPJ-GUESS outputs; PAM provided support in the use
265 of LPJ-GUESS; all authors reviewed and commented upon the draft text and contributed to the final
266 version.

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Table 1: Changes in mean annual net primary productivity pre-industrial to present

Plant functional type	Change in aNPP pre-industrial to present relative to pre-industrial aNPP (%)					
	Rannoch landscape	Black Wood of Rannoch	Glen Affric landscape	Pinewoods of Glen Affric & neighbouring areas	Glen Acall landscape	Rhidorroch pinewoods
Boreal trees:						
<i>Betula</i> (tree)*	16.8	-37.7	18.5	-1.8	20.8	-29.2
<i>Pinus sylvestris</i>	49.9	-29.7	35.2	-5.9	29.0	-47.7
<i>Populus tremula</i>	6.4	-43.0	14.1	-13.9	10.3	-43.4
Nemoral trees/shrubs:						
Nemoral broadleaved trees†	335.5	166.8	195.9	293.6	210.2	520.1
<i>Quercus</i> spp.	295.7	724.8	64.5	92.4	64.5	40.6
<i>Alnus glutinosa</i>	182.3	209.8	84.2	84.2	78.1	50.3
<i>Salix</i> (shrub/tree)	24.3	-32.4	19.1	2.5	27.1	-30.2
Non-trees:						
Dwarf shrubs‡	-4.6	-23.9	5.5	-5.8	0.8	-8.9
Forbs§	3.0	-35.5	7.8	-12.6	1.1	-41.0
Graminoids¶	-31.6	-58.7	-23.4	-41.7	-29.1	-84.8
Total	11.3	5.1	14.1	11.6	12.8	10.1

- 351 Aggregated PFTs are comprised as follows:
- 352 * *Betula pubescens*, *B. pendula*.
- 353 † *Corylus avellana*, *Fraxinus excelsior*, *Tilia cordata*, *Acer* spp., *Ulmus* spp.
- 354 ‡ Boreal evergreen shrub, *Betula nana*, *Juniperus communis*, *Salix* (dwarf shrub), Ericaceae (dwarf
355 shrub).
- 356 § *Artemisia* spp., Chenopodiaceae.
- 357 ¶ Gramineae (C3), Gramineae (cold C3), Cyperaceae.

Table 2: Monthly mean temperature and precipitation anomalies

Month	Temperature anomaly* (°C)	Precipitation anomaly†
January	-1.20	0.99
February	-0.09	0.99
March	-1.37	0.98
April	-0.48	1.01
May	-0.13	1.04
June	-0.17	0.99
July	-0.55	1.09
August	-0.51	0.94
September	-0.68	1.03
October	-0.85	0.97
November	-1.35	1.02
December	-0.92	0.96

359

* Calculated by subtracting the monthly mean value for 1981–2010 from that for 1786–1815.

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† Calculated as the ratio of the monthly mean value for 1786–1815 to that for 1981–2010.

361

Table 3: Annual net primary productivity of *Pinus sylvestris* in core areas of Caledonian

362

pinewoods

	Black Wood of		Glen Affric		Rhidorroch	
	Rannoch		& neighbouring areas			
	Pre- industrial	Present	Pre- industrial	Present	Pre- industrial	Present
aNPP of <i>P. sylvestris</i> (g C m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)						
Mean	6.516	4.581	3.469	3.265	0.207	0.108
Variance	2.521 x 10 ⁻²	2.441 x 10 ⁻²	2.983 x 10 ⁻²	3.361 x 10 ⁻²	4.536 x 10 ⁻⁴	2.461 x 10 ⁻⁴
<i>t</i> statistic*	19.358		3.477		2.933	
degrees of freedom	4025		7210		415	
<i>p</i>	6.766 x 10 ⁻⁸⁰		5.095 x 10 ⁻⁴		3.545 x 10 ⁻³	

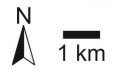
363

* *t* statistic calculated for a paired *t*-test; probabilities are for a two-tailed test.

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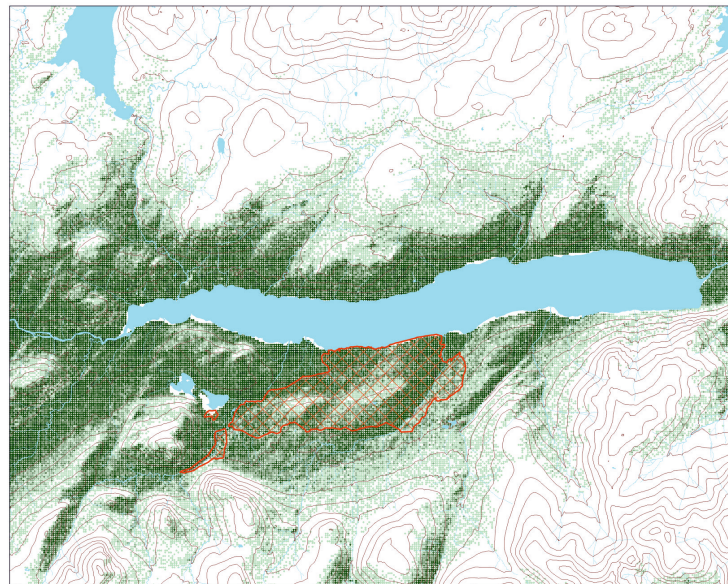
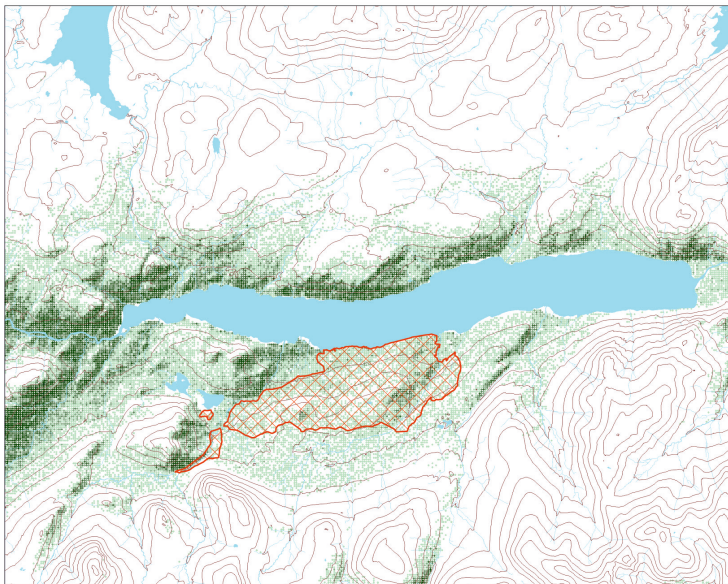
1786–1815

1981–2010



Pinus sylvestris

● 0·001 – 25·000 ● 25·001 – 50·000 ● 50·001 – 75·000 ● 75·001 – 100·000 ● >100·000 (g C m² yr⁻¹)



Quercus spp.

● 0·001 – 25·000 ● 25·001 – 50·000 ● 50·001 – 75·000 ● 75·001 – 100·000 ● 100·001 – 150·000 ● >150·000 (g C m² yr⁻¹)

366 **Figure 1: Maps of the Rannoch landscape showing annual net primary productivity of *Pinus sylvestris* and *Quercus* spp.**

367 Contour maps illustrating the high relief typical of the study landscapes, the east-west orientation of the major valley, and in the
368 red hatched areas the locations of core areas of Caledonian pinewoods, in this case the Black Wood of Rannoch (Forestry
369 Commission 1999). Shading of the maps shows aNPP of *Pinus sylvestris* (top) and *Quercus* (bottom) simulated under pre-
370 industrial (left) and present (right) climatic conditions. These PFTs represent the keystone taxa of the Caledonian pinewood
371 and upland oak woodland habitats respectively, and can thus be viewed as 'proxies' for the habitats themselves. White areas
372 have zero aNPP; darkest green shades indicate highest aNPP (colours scaled separately to the ranges of the two PFTs).
373 Note how the proportion of grid cells with zero aNPP of *P. sylvestris* within the core area is greater under present climatic
374 conditions, whereas areas at higher elevation in the north of the landscape have markedly increased aNPP of *P. sylvestris* under
375 present conditions and are much more favourable for the growth of this tree than are the core areas currently designated for
376 conservation of the Caledonian pinewoods habitat. Contours at 50 m intervals from the OS Terrain 50 data; water courses
377 and water bodies from the OS VectorMap District data. Study landscape 19.6 km E–W by 15.4 km N–S.

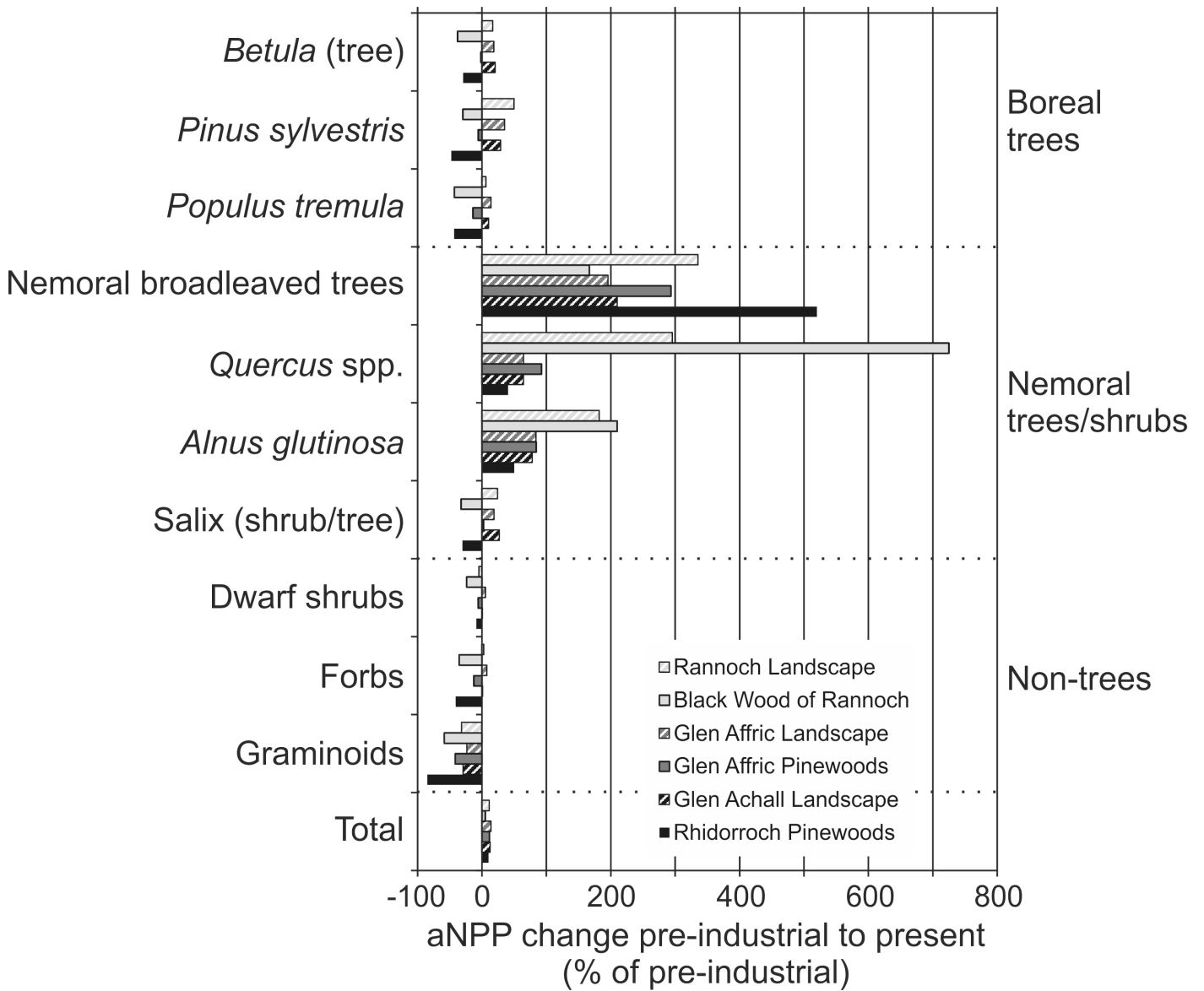


Figure 2: Relative changes in mean annual net primary productivity

Change in mean aNPP of six individual and four aggregated PFTs, and of the vegetation as a whole, in the three landscapes as a whole and in the areas of Caledonian pinewood in each. The difference in aNPP under present climatic conditions from that under pre-industrial conditions is shown expressed as a percentage of the mean aNPP under pre-industrial conditions. Negative values indicate PFTs for which conditions are now less favourable and *vice versa*.