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Global functional variation in alpine vegetation

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Global functional variation in alpine vegetation

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Complete List of Authors:	Testolin, Riccardo; Department of Environmental Biology Carmona, Carlos; Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Ecology Attorre, Fabio; Sapienza University of Rome, Plant Biology Borchardt, Peter; University of Hamburg Bruelheide, Helge; Institute of Biology, Geobotany and Botanical Garden Doležal, Jiří; Czech Academy of Sciences, Institute of Botany, Department of Functional Ecology Finckh, Manfred; University of Hamburg Haider, Sylvia; Martin Luther University Halle Wittenberg Hemp, Andreas; University of Bayreuth Department of Plant Systematics Jandt, Ute; Institute for Biology, Geobotany & Botanical Garden Korolyuk, Andrei; Central Siberia Botanical Garden, Russian Academy of Sciences, Lenoir, Jonathan; CNRS, UR "Ecologie et dynamique des systèmes anthropisés" (EDYSAN, UMR 7058 CNRS-UPJV) Makunina, Natalia; Central Siberia Botanical Garden, Russian Academy of Sciences, geobotany Malanson, George; University of Iowa, Geographical & Sustainability Sciences Mucina, Ladislav; Murdoch University, Harry Butler Institute Noroozi, Jalil; University of Vienna , Conservation Biology, Landscape Ecology Nowak, Arkadiusz; University of Opole, Department of Biology Peyre, Gwendolyn; University of Barcelona, Ut. Botany, Dpt. Plant Biology; Aarhus University, Bioscience Sabatini, Francesco; Humboldt-Universitat zu Berlin, Geography Department Šibik, Jozef; Institute of Botany SAS, Department of Gebotany Sklenar, Petr; Slovak Academy of Sciences Vassilev, Kiril; Institute of biodiversity and ecosystem research, Wiser, Susan; Manaaki Whenua, Zibzeev, Evgeny; Central Siberian Botanical Garden SB RAS Jiménez-Alfaro, Borja; erman Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv), ; MLU - German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv), ; MLU - German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity
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Author Contributions:

B. J.-A., L. M., R. T. and C. P. C. conceived the study and developed the methodology. P. B., J. D., M. F., A. H., A. Y. K., J. L., N. M., G. P. M., J. N., A. N., R. K. P., G. P., J. Å ., P. S., K. V., S. K. W. and E. G. Z. provided the vegetation plot data. F. M. S. and H. B. facilitated access to the sPlot database. R.T. analyzed the data and produced the outputs. R.T and B.J.-A wrote the first manuscript draft. B.J.-A supervised the study. All the authors discussed the methodology and commented on various versions of the manuscript.

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The vegetation plot data is stored and managed by sPlot and the corresponding author and is available upon request. The R code used to carry out the analyses is available at: https://figshare.com/s/c2c0ad45f6f1cd3d1689.

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1 2 3	1	Title: Global functional variation in alpine vegetation
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7 8 9 10 11 12 13	3	Authors: Riccardo Testolin ¹ , Carlos P. Carmona ² , Fabio Attore ¹ , Peter Borchardt ³ , Helge
	4	Bruelheide ^{4,5} , Jiri Dolezal ^{6,7} , Manfred Finckh ⁸ , Sylvia Haider ^{4,5} , Andreas Hemp ⁹ , Ute Jandt ^{4,5} ,
	5	Andrei Yu. Korolyuk ¹⁰ , Jonathan Lenoir ¹¹ , Natalia Makunina ¹⁰ , George P. Malanson ¹² , Ladislav
	6	Mucina ¹³ , Jalil Noroozi ¹⁴ , Arkadiusz Nowak ^{15,16} , Robert K. Peet ¹⁷ , Gwendolyn Peyre ¹⁸ ,
14 15	7	Francesco Maria Sabatini ^{5,4} , Jozef Šibík ¹⁹ , Petr Sklenář ²⁰ , Kiril Vassilev ²¹ , Susan K. Wiser ²² ,
16 17	8	Evgeny G. Zibzeev ¹⁰ , Borja Jiménez-Alfaro ²³
18 19 20 21	9	Affiliations:
22	10	¹ Department of Environmental Biology, Sapienza University of Rome, Rome, Italy
23 24	11	² Institute of Ecology and Earth Sciences, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia
25 26	12	³ Institute of Geography, CEN – Center for Earth System Research and Sustainability, University
27 28	13	of Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany
29	14	⁴ Institute of Biology/Geobotany and Botanical Garden, Martin Luther University Halle-
30 31	15	Wittenberg, Halle, Germany
32 33	16	⁵ German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig, Leipzig,
34 35	17	Germany
36	18	⁶ Institute of Botany of the Czech Academy of Sciences, Průhonice, Czech Republic
37 38	19	⁷ Department of Botany, Faculty of Science, University of South Bohemia, České Budějovice,
39 40	20	Czech Republic
41 42	21	⁸ Biodiversity, Evolution and Ecology of Plants, Institute of Plant Science and Microbiology,
43	22	University of Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany
44 45	23	⁹ Department of Plant Systematics, University of Bayreuth, Bayreuth, Germany
46 47	24	¹⁰ Central Siberian Botanical Garden, Siberian Branch, Russian Academy of Sciences,
48 49 50 51 52	25	Novosibirsk, Russia
	26	¹¹ UR "Ecologie et Dynamiques des Systèmes Anthropisés" (EDYSAN, UMR 7058 CNRS-
	27	UPJV), Université de Picardie Jules Verne, Amiens, France
53 54	28	¹² Department of Geographical & Sustainability Sciences, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa,
55 56	29	USA
57 58 59		1

1 ว				
2 3	30	¹³ Harry Butler Institute, Murdoch University, Perth, Australia		
4 5 6 7 8 9	31	¹⁴ Department of Botany and Biodiversity Research, University of Vienna, Vienna, Austria		
	32	¹⁵ Botanical Garden – Center for Biological Diversity Conservation, Polish Academy of		
	33	Sciences, Warszawa, Poland		
10	34	¹⁶ Institute of Biology, University of Opole, Opole, Poland		
11 12	35	¹⁷ Department of Biology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, USA		
13 14	36	¹⁸ Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of the Andes, Bogota,		
15 16	37	Colombia		
17	38	¹⁹ Institute of Botany, Plant Science and Biodiversity Centre, Slovak Academy of Sciences,		
18 19	39	Bratislava, Slovakia		
20 21	40	²⁰ Department of Botany, Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic		
22 23	41	²¹ Department of Plant and Fungal Diversity and Resources, Institute of Biodiversity and		
24	42	Ecosystem Research, Bulgarian Academy of Sciences, Sofia, Bulgaria		
25 26	43	²² Manaaki Whenua–Landcare Research, Lincoln, New Zealand		
27 28	44	²³ Research Unit of Biodiversity (CSUC/UO/PA), University of Oviedo, Mieres, Spain		
29 30 31 32 33 34	45	Correspondence:		
	46	Riccardo Testolin, Department of Environmental Biology, Sapienza University of Rome, Rome,		
	47	Italy.		
35	48	Email: riccardo.testolin@uniroma1.it		
36 37	49			
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57 Abstract:

Questions: What is the functional trait variation of vascular plants in alpine areas? How does

59 cross-scale trait variation of alpine vegetation relate to large-scale biogeographic factors? How

60 much do macroclimate and phylogenetic relatedness contribute to explaining the functional

61 variation of alpine plant communities?

62 Location: Global.

Methods: We compiled a global dataset of alpine vegetation with 5,532 geo-referenced plots,
1,934 species, and six plant functional traits. We used principal component analysis to describe
the species' trait space, and trait probability density to assess the functional variation of trait
pools and local communities among major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic
realms. We used multiple regression on distance matrices to model community functional
dissimilarity against environmental and phylogenetic dissimilarity.

Results: The first two PCA axes explained 66 % of the species' functional variation and were 69 70 related to the leaf and stem economic spectra, respectively. Trait pools were largely independent of surrounding habitat types and climate, but with considerable variation among biogeographic 71 realms. A similar pattern emerged at the community level, with a stronger influence of realms on 72 73 functional variation. Environmental and phylogenetic dissimilarities had a similar influence on community functional dissimilarity, with a negligible effect of geographic distance. 74 **Conclusions:** Plant species in alpine areas reflect the global variation of plant function, but with 75 a predominant role of resource-use strategies. Current macroclimate exerts a limited effect on 76 functional pools, mostly acting at the community level in combination with evolutionary 77 imprints of the two global hemispheres. Alpine vegetation is functionally unrelated to the 78 habitats in which it is embedded, supporting its evolutionary distinctiveness from other terrestrial 79

80 biomes.

60

Keywords: Global alpine vegetation, functional dissimilarity, trait pools, trait probability
density, evolutionary history, macroclimate, phylogenetic dissimilarity, alpine biomes

84 Introduction

Alpine habitats (i.e. high-elevation habitats above the climatic treeline) cover about 3 % of land outside Antarctica (Körner et al. 2011; Testolin et al. 2020) and represent the only biogeographic unit distributed across all continents and latitudes on both hemispheres (Körner 2003). These habitats support about 10,000 plant species worldwide, many of which are endemics (Körner 2003) and some are global biodiversity hotspots (Myers et al. 2000). Despite the great number of species and its global distribution, alpine vegetation is dominated by few growth forms (i.e. dwarf shrubs, graminoids, herbaceous rosettes and cushions), reflecting functional adaptations to the general characteristics of alpine environments, i.e. low temperatures, short growing season and limited nutrient availability (Körner 1995; Körner 2003; Dolezal et al. 2016; Körner 2019; Stanisci et al. 2020). Yet, to which extent large scale factors shape the spectrum of plant functions across alpine regions remains little understood.

Alpine habitats can be globally differentiated along gradients of seasonality and continentality (Testolin et al. 2020). They are generally considered as ecological units defined by elevation (orobiomes) and nested within different vegetation zones (zonobiomes) that are in turn characterized by distinct plant species pools (Walter & Box 1976; Mucina 2019). Since alpine vegetation is found in regions with different climatic and evolutionary history (Billings 1974), their functional characteristics are influenced by the species pool dominating in that region (Moncrieff et al. 2016; Mucina 2019). Indeed, alpine vegetation shows variation in terms of e.g. abundance of succulents in semi-arid zones, sclerophyllous species in Mediterranean climates, or

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giant rosettes in tropical areas (e.g. *Espletia*, *Lobelia*, and *Dendrosenecio*) However, growth forms might be poor descriptors of plant functioning in tundra vegetation (Thomas et al. 2019) as they still bear a considerable amount of variability in plant characteristics, which can vary widely within a single group (Körner 1995). A more quantitative assessment of plant functioning can be approached by using functional traits (hereafter traits), defined as measurable features affecting the performance of species in their environment (McGill et al. 2006; Garnier et al. 2016). Indeed, a small set of traits can be used to explain different strategies adopted by terrestrial plant species for resources acquisition, growth and reproduction (Grime 1974; Díaz et al. 2016; Bruelheide et al. 2018).

Factors selecting for favorable combinations of traits are generally scale-dependent (Garnier et al. 2016). At large spatial scales, the interplay of different continental processes, mostly driven by macroclimate, determines the current set of functional traits (i.e. the trait pool) that further contributes to define the global biomes (Mucina 2019). Stochastic events and landscape structure limit species dispersal into regional floras (Garnier et al. 2016), that can act as potential sources for new alpine species (Billings 1974). These processes are rooted in the evolutionary history of each region, which is constrained by long-term isolation of major landforms (Chaboureau et al. 2014) and by the phylogenetic origin of the species occurring within each biogeographic realms (Holt et al. 2013; Daru et al. 2017; Daru et al. 2018). At the community scale, trait pools are further constrained by local biotic and abiotic filters that select species assemblages with favorable trait syndromes (Lavorel et al. 1997; Zobel 2016; Mucina 2019). Linking local filtering to evolutionary and biogeographic history remains a major challenge in macroecology and new approaches that incorporate different facets of diversity are

required to understand the patterns and processes regulating plant communities across scales (Pärtel et al. 2016; Ladouceur et al. 2019).

Here, we provide the first cross-scale overview of the functional variation of alpine vegetation and its possible drivers. Specifically, we aim to: 1) describe the trait spectrum of vascular plant species in global alpine ecosystems; 2) assess the trait functional variation of regional pools and local communities among major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic realms; 3) estimate the relative contribution of macroclimate and evolutionary history in shaping the functional characteristics of alpine plant communities.

Methods

R Study system and data selection

We considered data from alpine vegetation defined as any vascular plant community above the climatic treeline (Körner 2003). In addition to strictly zonal habitats dominated by graminoids, forbs and dwarf shrubs, we included snow-patch plant communities and vegetation on rocks and screes, as they are also found ubiquitously across the alpine vegetation belt. The vegetation-plot data collected by the authors, compiled from the literature, or stored in the sPlot database (v2.1)(Bruelheide et al. 2019), was first filtered using habitat classifications of the data sources and then further cleaned by excluding plots with tree species or incomplete taxonomic identification. We standardized datasets from different sources by identifying a minimum common set of plot attributes including plot size (i.e. sampled area), elevation, and geographic coordinates. Species names were harmonized using the Taxonomic Name Resolution Service (Boyle et al. 2013) (http://tnrs.iplantcollaborative.org) with default settings. Subspecies and varieties were merged at

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1 2		
2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	148	the species resolution by summing the respective percentage cover values. At this point the
	149	dataset consisted of 8,877 plots of alpine vascular vegetation with 5,313 plant species recorded.
	150	Each plot was then assigned to major habitat types (Olson & Dinerstein 1998; Olson et al.
	151	2001), representing the dominant vegetation of a large geographic area whose species pool could
	152	have contributed to that of the alpine belt. Furthermore, we assigned the plots to three different
15 16	153	groups summarizing the climatic variability of global alpine areas according to (Testolin et al.
17 18	154	2020): 1) oceanic, characterized by greater precipitation and relative temperature stability,
19 20 21	155	analogous to the oceanic climate of the Köppen-Geiger classification (Köppen 1936); 2)
22 23	156	continental, defined by drier conditions and greater yearly temperature differences; 3)
24 25	157	subtropical, encompassing both tropical and subtropical alpine areas, and characterized by
26 27 28	158	warmer temperatures with strong daily excursion and low annual precipitation. Single plots
29 30	159	falling slightly outside the boundaries of the commonest major habitat type or climatic group for
31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42	160	a given region were manually assigned to those. Finally, each plot was assigned to a
	161	biogeographic realm (Olson et al. 2001), representing a broad land unit with distinct evolutionary
	162	history.
	163	For each species, we linked the gap-filled trait information from the TRY database (v5.0)
	164	(Shan et al. 2012; Fazayeli et al. 2014; Schrodt et al. 2015; Kattge et al. 2020), provided by the
43 44	165	sPlot database as species-specific average values (Bruelheide et al. 2019). We selected six plant
45 46 47	166	functional traits: leaf area (one-sided surface of the fresh leaf), specific leaf area (leaf area per
48 49	167	leaf dry mass; SLA), leaf dry matter content (leaf dry mass per leaf fresh mass; LDMC), leaf
50 51	168	nitrogen (N) (N per leaf dry mass;), plant height (maximum total height of the plant) and seed
52 53 54	169	mass (dry mass of the seed). We chose these traits because they are commonly used to
55 56	170	characterize tundra and alpine vegetation (Bjorkman et al. 2018; Thomas et al. 2019; Liancourt
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et al. 2020), and they are fully representative of plant ecological strategies (Díaz et al. 2016). The
values of plant height, leaf area and seed mass were log₁₀-transformed to reduce skewness.
Species for which trait information was not available were removed. At the community level, we
only considered plots with at least 50 % cover of species with trait data. The final dataset
consisted of 5,532 vegetation plots between 0.25 and 400 m² in size sampled between 1923 and
2019, with 1,934 species belonging to five major habitat types, three climatic groups and five
biogeographic realms (Figure 1).

178 <u>Functional spectrum of species pools</u>

179 All the following analyses have been carried out using R (R Core Team 2020). To analyze the trait space occupied by the species and the relationships among the selected traits, we performed 180 a principal component analysis (PCA) of the standardized values of the six traits. To compare the 181 trait pools of alpine vegetation across major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic 182 realms, we used trait probability density, a scale-independent framework that implements the 183 concept of the niche hypervolume while accounting for the probabilistic nature of traits 184 (Carmona et al. 2016). As reliable information on intraspecific variability of the traits was not 185 available across all studied species and for each trait, we estimated it as 50 % of the standard 186 187 deviation of the species average for each trait (Lamanna et al. 2014). Then, we calculated the single-trait pools as the probability densities for each major habitat type, climatic group and 188 biogeographic realm using the package "TPD" (Carmona 2019), accounting for species 189 frequencies (i.e. the number of plots in each major habitat type, climatic group and 190 biogeographic realm, where a certain species was recorded). 191

We assessed the functional variation among different groups using kernel density plotsand calculating overlap-based pair-wise dissimilarities among trait pools using the "dissim"

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function of "TPD" package. The significance of the pair-wise dissimilarities was evaluated in a null-modeling framework (Geange et al. 2011; Traba et al. 2017) by pooling the observations from each pair, randomizing the species' labels 999 times while keeping the number of species constant for each group and calculating each time the pair-wise dissimilarity value between the simulated trait probability density. Raw p-values were calculated for each comparison by ranking the empirical dissimilarity value among the simulated ones. The final p-values were computed by applying the Bonferroni correction (Legendre & Legendre 2012). To assess the overall functional variation (among major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic realms) while excluding potentially redundant information among the six traits, we also calculated multitrait probability density using the first two PCA axes that incorporated 66 % of the total variability (see Results and Discussion), and repeated the same analyses described above for the single traits.

Functional patterns of communities

To analyze the trait patterns across plant communities, we calculated the multi-trait dissimilarities between all vegetation plots as described above, controlling for the relative cover of the species within each plot. The pair-wise dissimilarities were visualized using non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS), which allowed comparison of the distribution of plots belonging to different major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic realms. The relationship between community dissimilarities and the original traits was assessed by fitting the community weighted means of each trait to the ordination scores with the "envfit" function of the "vegan" package in R (Oksanen et al. 2019). Significant differences among plots belonging to different major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic realms were tested using PERMANOVA (Anderson 2001), implemented by the "adonis" function of the R package

"vegan", using 999 permutations. Pair-wise tests were performed with the "pairwise.adonis"
function of the "pairwiseAdonis" package in R (Martinez Arbizu 2020), applying a Bonferroni
correction to the p-values. To assist interpretation of the pair-wise PERMANOVA results, we
tested the multivariate homogeneity of group variances with the pair-wise PERMDISP test
(Anderson 2006) using the "permutest.betadisper" function of the "vegan" package in R with
999 permutations.

223 <u>Modeling community dissimilarity</u>

To quantify the relative contribution of climate and evolutionary history in determining functional variation among communities, we modeled plot-level functional dissimilarity as a function of environmental and phylogenetic dissimilarity while controlling for geographic distance. First, we selected the set of species for which both trait and phylogenetic data were available (n = 1,674) and further subset the vegetation plots by keeping those with at least 50 % cumulative cover of these species. Thus, we obtained a subset of 5,047 plots and calculated the multi-trait functional dissimilarities between all possible pairs of plots as described above. Then, we built a set of climatic variables known to affect the functionality of vegetation in the alpine belt (Körner 2003; Moser et al. 2005; Nagy & Grabherr 2009) using data from CHELSA at 1 km spatial resolution (Karger et al. 2017). We included the mean temperature, precipitation, growing degree days and mean potential evapotranspiration of the growing season, defined as months with mean temperature above > 0.9 °C (Paulsen & Körner 2014). Growing degree days (i.e. the sum of monthly temperatures $> 0.9^{\circ}$ C multiplied by the total number of days) were calculated using the "growingDegDays" function of the R package "envirem" (Title & Bemmels 2018). Mean potential evapotranspiration of the growing season was estimated with the "hargreaves" function of the R package "SPEI" (Beguería & Vicente-Serrano 2017), using maximum and

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	240	minimum monthly values of temperature and monthly precipitation. The monthly values of
	241	potential evapotranspiration obtained were then averaged across months with mean temperature
	242	above 0.9°C. We standardized the four climatic variables and calculated the multivariate
0 1	243	Euclidean distance among each pair of plots as a measure of environmental dissimilarity. To
2 3	244	account for the evolutionary history of plant species in different communities, we also calculated
4 5	245	the pair-wise phylogenetic dissimilarity between plots (Ives & Helmus 2010) with the "pcd"
6 7 8	246	function of the R package "picante" (Kembel et al. 2010). To account for the spatial aggregation
9 0	247	of plots and unmeasured regional effects on the estimated functional dissimilarity, we calculated
1 2	248	the pair-wise geographical distances between plots. Finally, we modeled functional community
3 4 5	249	dissimilarity against these three distanced-based predictors using multiple regression on distance
5 6 7	250	matrices (MRM) with the "lm" function. Despite our measure of functional dissimilarity is
8 9	251	constrained between 0 and 1, our dataset mainly encompassed intermediate levels of functional
0 1 2	252	turnover (Figure S1), allowing us to treat it as approximately linear (Ferrier et al. 2007).
2 3 4	253	Furthermore, a linear modelling approach allowed us to calculate the adjusted R ² of all the sub-
5 6	254	models necessary to perform variance partitioning (Borcard et al. 1992; Swenson 2014).
7 8	255	
9 0 1	256	Results
2	257	The PCA of the six trait values at the species level revealed that 66 % of the total trait variation
3 4 5 6	258	is expressed by the first two PCA axes. The first axis (PC1; 35 % of variation) was mainly
7 8	259	related to variations in LDMC, leaf N and SLA, while the second axis (PC2; 31 % of variation)
9 0 1	260	was linked to leaf area, plant height and seed mass (Figure 2, Table S1).
1 2 3	261	When looking at the habitat types dominating the regions in which alpine vegetation is
4 5	262	embedded, we observed negligible differences in trait probability density and low functional
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dissimilarity among trait pools. The only exception was represented by alpine vegetation of tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests, which exhibited slightly greater plant height values compared to other groups (Figure 3; Table S2). Similarly, among climatic groups, subtropical alpine areas exhibited greater plant height values compare to oceanic and continental ones, with minor variation in the distribution of other traits (Figure 3; Table S3). As for biogeographic realms, we observed considerable variability in trait probability density. The alpine vegetation of Australasia and Neotropic presented lower SLA compared to that of other biogeographic realms and similar values of plant height to the Afrotropic and Neotropic, which are both greater than those of the Palearctic and Nearctic. As for leaf area and seed mass, the Neotropics generally showed greater values compared to the Palearctic and Nearctic, which in turn presented greater leaf N and lower LDMC than Australasia (Figure 3; Table S4). Multi-trait patterns seemingly reflected those observed at the single trait level. Among major habitat types and climatic groups, multi-trait functional dissimilarities were not significant or very modest (Table 1). Conversely, among biogeographic realms, Palearctic and Nearctic were similar to one another and differentiated from Neotropic and Australasia, with the Afrotropic pool lying in between.

The NMDS of multi-trait dissimilarities among alpine plant communities revealed no distinct patterns between different major habitat types or climatic groups (Figure 4). Indeed, at the community level, major habitat types explained 11 % of the total variance in multi-trait dissimilarities ($R^2 = 0.11$, p = 0.001) and pair-wise comparisons identified only small differences among major habitat types, which are probably due to differences in multivariate dispersions (Table S5). Similarly, climatic groups explained 5 % of the variance ($R^2 = 0.05$, p = 0.001), with negligible differences emerging from pair-wise comparisons (Table S6). On the other hand, the

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NMDS of functional dissimilarities among alpine plant communities showed distinct patterns 286 among biogeographic realms (Figure 4), with Palearctic, Nearctic and Afrotropic communities 287 occupying large part of the community variation space, whereas Neotropic assemblages occupied 288 the portion characterized by greater plant height leaf area and seed mass. Australasian plots 289 represented a separate entity, mainly defined by larger values of LDMC and smaller SLA and 290 leaf N. Biogeographic realms explained 19 % of the total variance ($R^2 = 0.19$, p = 0.001), mainly 291 ascribable to the Australasian communities (Table S7). 292 Finally, the MRM model fit on a subset of plots (with available phylogenetic 293 294 information) explained 16.6 % of the variance in community dissimilarities. Environmental and phylogenetic dissimilarities both explained 6.2 % of the variance individually, while 4 % was 295 shared between the two. Geographic distance exhibited a marginal effect, explaining only 0.3 % 296 297 of the variance (Figure 5). 298 Discussion 299 Functional trait spectrum of alpine plants 300 Alpine plant species are strongly differentiated based on their resource-use strategies and, 301 secondarily, plant height. We selected six traits relevant to resources use, growth and 302 reproduction, and used PCA to describe the trait spectrum of 1,934 vascular plant species in 303 global alpine ecosystems. The first axis of trait variation (PC1) reflected different strategies in 304 305 terms of returns on investments of nutrients and dry mass in leaves, i.e. the leaf economics spectrum (Wright et al. 2004). The second axis (PC2) represented the stem economics spectrum 306 (Baraloto et al. 2010) and, to some extent, the colonization versus exploitation continuum 307 308 defined by seed mass (Díaz et al. 2016). These results are in line with previous analyses of alpine

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309 and tundra vascular plants (Dolezal et al. 2016; Thomas et al. 2019) and are consistent with the global spectrum of plant form and function (Díaz et al. 2016). The resource-use strategy reflects 310 the absence of trees and tall shrubs in alpine vegetation, and the general abundance of prostrate 311 species which are mainly differentiated by local conditions. Indeed, the small size allows alpine 312 plants to respond more closely to the buffered microclimate conditions near the ground (Geiger 313 314 et al. 2003), thus being decoupled from the fluctuations of the macroenvironment (Körner et al. 1989; Körner 2003). Along the first axis of functional trait variation, leaf construction costs of 315 alpine plants tend to vary depending on local temperature, frost stress and exposure to light 316 317 (Körner et al. 1989), hence the greater variation of related traits (Stanisci et al. 2020). In contrast, the second axis showed a more complex variation of traits, with a predominant role of plant 318 height and seed mass. Although such variation can be also related to environmental constrains, 319 these traits are expected to vary little within regional alpine species pools (Ladouceur et al. 320 2019), thus they may be also linked to macroecological differences across regional floras. 321

322 <u>Variation of alpine trait pools</u>

Trait pools of alpine plants were largely independent of habitat types dominating at the regional 323 level, suggesting that alpine vegetation is functionally similar across region, regardless of the 324 325 different floras in which they are embedded. This reflects the overall convergence of growth forms in alpine vegetation (Körner 2003; Aubert et al. 2014; Körner 2019), resulting from the 326 327 adaptative response to similar ecological conditions (Givnish 2010; Horandl & Emadzade 2011; Hughes & Atchison 2015; Givnish 2016). Moreover, this finding contrasts with the general view 328 of alpine areas as elevational orobiomes that should not be considered independently of the 329 zonobiomes they originate from (Walter & Box 1976), and supports the distinction of alpine 330 ecosystems from other terrestrial biomes (Testolin et al. 2020). Trait pools were also convergent 331

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with respect to climatic groups, indicating that large-scale macroclimatic patterns above the 332 treeline have moderate effects on functional features of alpine vegetation, which is consistent 333 with the similar patterns of primary productivity found in global alpine areas (Testolin et al. 334 2020). 335

We found a stronger degree of trait pool divergence across biogeographic realms. This 336 337 could be expected as functional differences might emerge in otherwise structurally similar plant groups when these are compared across evolutionarily distinct areas (Alvarado-Cárdenas et al. 338 2013). Specifically, we observed a distinction between the trait pools of the Holarctic realm, as 339 opposed to the Neotropic and Australasia. The trait pool in the Afrotropic realm lied in between. 340 This pattern likely reflects different evolutionary histories and adaptations of alpine vegetation in 341 the Northern and Southern Hemispheres (Billings 1974). Indeed, much of the ancestral alpine 342 vascular flora originated during the Miocene (23-5 Ma) from Arcto-Tertiary and Antarcto-343 Tertiary floras through upward migration and evolution of lowland taxa (Billings 1974). As a 344 consequence, Holarctic alpine vegetation shares many species with the Arctic (Billings 1974) 345 and has major links with Afrotropic alpine species (Linder 2014; Carbutt & Edwards 2015). In 346 contrast, a large part of Neotropic alpine plants originated locally through migration and 347 348 adaptation of Neotropical lowland species (Sklenář et al. 2011), some of which contributed also to Afrotropic lineages (Linder 2014). Finally, the functional similarity of Neotropics and 349 Australasia probably derived from both migration (Raven & Axelrod 1972) and convergent 350 351 evolution during the Pliocene (5 Ma) and the Pleistocene (2.5 Ma), when further mountain uplift and repeated glaciations induced the diversification of the respective alpine floras (McGlone et 352 353 al. 2001; Winkworth et al. 2005; Sklenář et al. 2011; Madriñán et al. 2013).

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Functional patterns of alpine communities

At the community level, the NMDS showed the same functional continua as the one detected by the PCA at the species level, revealing the analogy between present-day community assembly and individual species' evolutionary histories (Bruelheide et al. 2018). We did not observe strong differentiation between plots belonging to different major habitat types or climatic groups, while biogeographic realms exhibited greater discriminatory power as they did for trait pools. We found that Australasian communities form a self-standing group characterized by conservative leaves with high construction costs. This is in agreement with the scarcity of cushion plants and the relative abundance of sclerophyllous dwarf shrubs in the Australasian alpine flora, when compared to other global alpine regions (Ballantyne & Pickering 2015). The functional distinctness of Australasian alpine communities from Holarctic and Tropical ones also reflects the differences in trait pools between the two Hemispheres and the long time isolation (45 – 49 Ma) of Australasia from other biogeographic realms of Gondwanan origin (Raven & Axelrod 1972). Holarctic and Tropical communities, however, were not as functionally distinct as their trait pools, indicating that other processes apart from evolutionary history are involved at the local scale. Indeed, although our model highlighted the presence of a phylogenetic signal on functional dissimilarity, environmental dissimilarity explained an equal amount of variance (Figure 5). This is coherent with the process of niche conservatism in highly heterogeneous areas where the retention of the ancestral niche characteristics could lead to both conservatism and divergence of the realized niche (i.e. the functional characteristics) (Pyron et al. 2015). Nevertheless, the negligible effect of geographic distance and the large amount of unexplained variance point to fine-scale environmental factors (e.g. microclimate), disturbance and biotic interactions as the main drivers of community trait composition in alpine ecosystems (Grime 2006; Dolezal et al. 2019). In other words, the combination of phylogenetic constrains

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and within-region climatic variation seem to be major drivers of the functional trait variationobserved in alpine plant communities.

380 Basic assumptions

381 Even if we used the largest dataset of alpine vegetation ever collected, our study does not come without uncertainties. When comparing functional dissimilarities across geographical units and 382 383 spatial scales, for instance, we presumed that the species for which trait data were available were also representative of the dominant vegetation in our study areas. For several tropical species, 384 385 however, such data were not available, and we had to remove a large number of plots in Africa and South America. Although we recognize that this could have led to the exclusion of peculiar 386 combinations of traits and that even rare species can drive trait divergence among communities 387 at the regional scale (Richardson et al. 2012), this is probably less relevant at the global level. 388 We also note that our dataset encompassed vegetation plots of very different sizes (0.25 - 400)389 m^2). As species richness generally increases with area (Lomolino 2000), larger plots might be 390 functionally richer than smaller ones (Smith et al. 2013; Wang et al. 2013), biasing the 391 comparison among plots of different sizes. However, when accounting for specie abundances – 392 or, in our case, cover – the relationship between functional diversity and plot size tends to 393 394 weaken or disappear as a consequence of species dominance and functional redundancy (Karadimou et al. 2016). Therefore, as the trait probability density framework accounts for the 395 distribution of trait values in plant communities, plot size likely had a minor effect in the 396 estimation of functional dissimilarity among alpine communities. Although we collected most of 397 the vegetation plot data currently available on alpine vegetation, much effort will be needed in 398 the future to collect data with a consistent sampling protocol, including functional traits and a 399 proper representativity of species and vegetation types from disparate global regions. 400

401 Conclusions

> This study demonstrates how the functional adaptations of alpine plants relate to the global variation of plant form and function. Specifically, we highlighted how the trait pools of current alpine vegetation are scarcely related to lowland floras and macroclimatic patterns, while they still carry the evolutionary signature inherited by their Laurasian and Gondwanan ancestors. In combination with climatic factors, this evolutionary mark still determines variation in functional traits at the community level. Yet, we admit that other regional factors not accounted for in this study (e.g. soil properties, topoclimatic gradients) are likely influencing functional traits of alpine vegetation at large spatial scales. In general, we found alpine vegetation to be globally comparable in terms of functional diversity and related macroecological drivers. This finding might contribute to the identification of alpine biomes in the context of global vegetation zonation, with a special attention to the habitats above the treeline. In this respect, future work should be oriented toward the inclusion of trait data from tropical and subtropical species currently underrepresented in global datasets, as well as fine-scale environmental characteristics.

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432	Data availability: The vegetation plot data is stored and managed by sPlot and the
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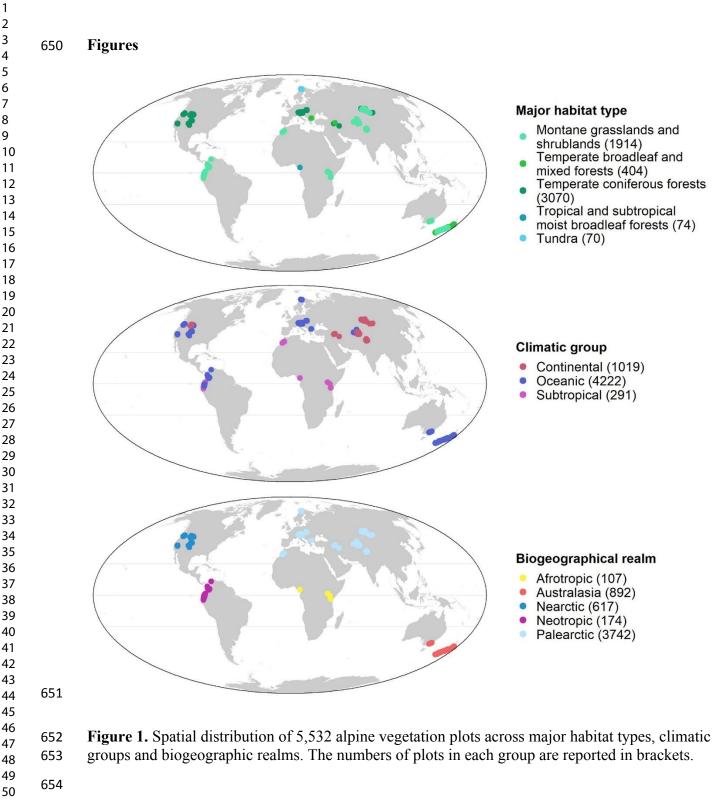
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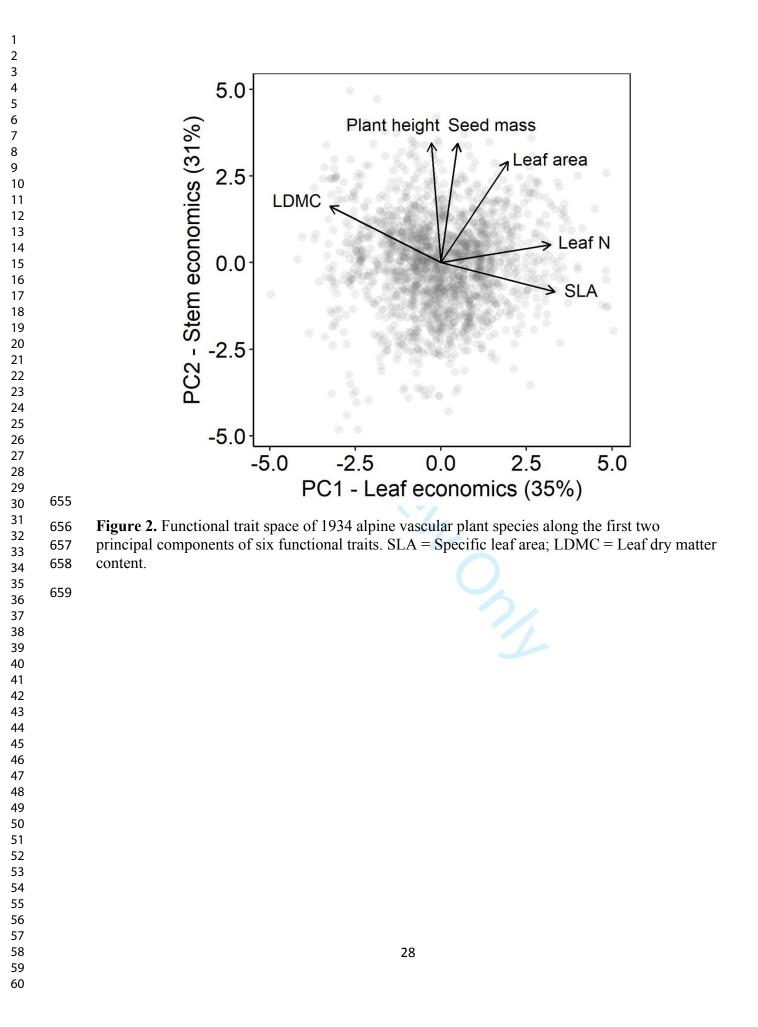
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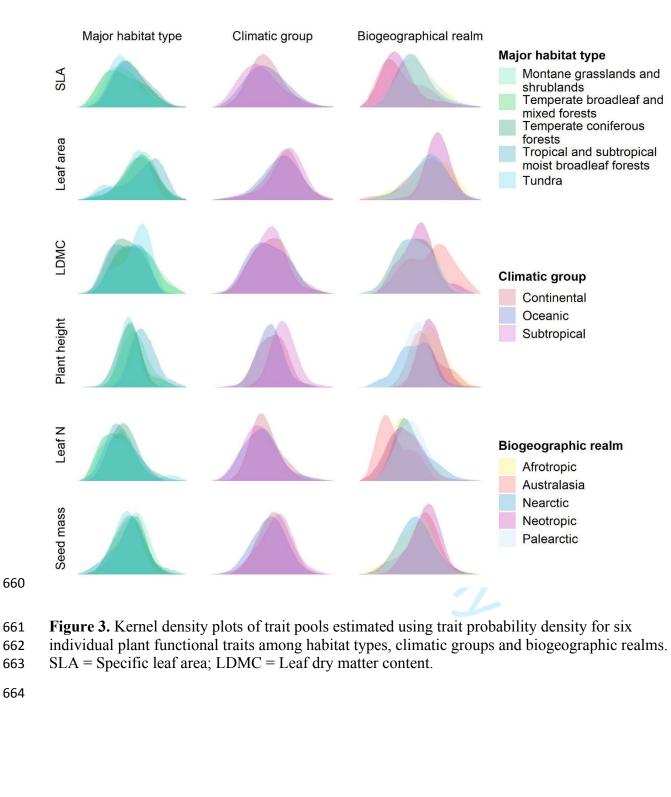
645	Tables

Table 1. Multi-trait pair-wise dissimilarities (Diss) of alpine vegetation between major habitat 647 types of surrounding areas, climatic groups and biogeographic realms. Significant dissimilarities 648 (P < 0.05) are in bold. Significance codes: ***: p < 0.001; **: p < 0.01; *: p < 0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

	Diss
Major habitat types	
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests	0.16 ^{ns}
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate coniferous forests	0.27**
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.29 ^{ns}
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tundra	0.27 ^{ns}
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Temperate coniferous forests	0.24**
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.34*
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests – Tundra	0.23 ^{ns}
Temperate coniferous forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.28 ^{ns}
Temperate coniferous forests – Tundra	0.25 ^{ns}
Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests - Tundra	0.38 ^{ns}
Climatic groups	
Continental - Oceanic	0.19**
Continental - Subtropical	0.22*
Oceanic - Subtropical	0.31**
Biogeographic realms	
Afrotropic - Australasia	0.40 ^{ns}
Afrotropic - Nearctic	0.26 ^{ns}
Afrotropic - Neotropic	0.29 ^{ns}
Afrotropic - Palearctic	0.23 ^{ns}
Australasia - Nearctic	0.47**
Australasia - Neotropic	0.36 ^{ns}
Australasia - Palearctic	0.45**
Nearctic - Neotropic	0.43**
Nearctic - Palearctic	0.13 ^{ns}
Neotropic - Palearctic	0.41**







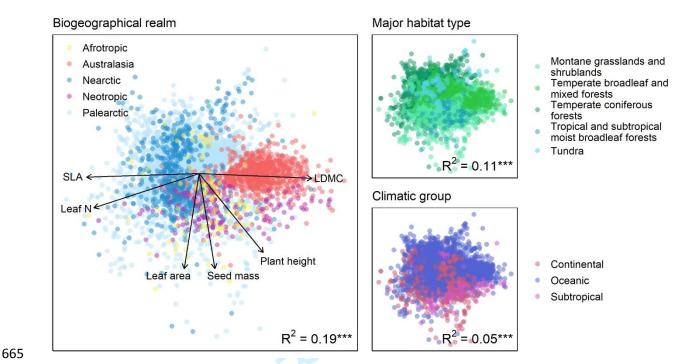
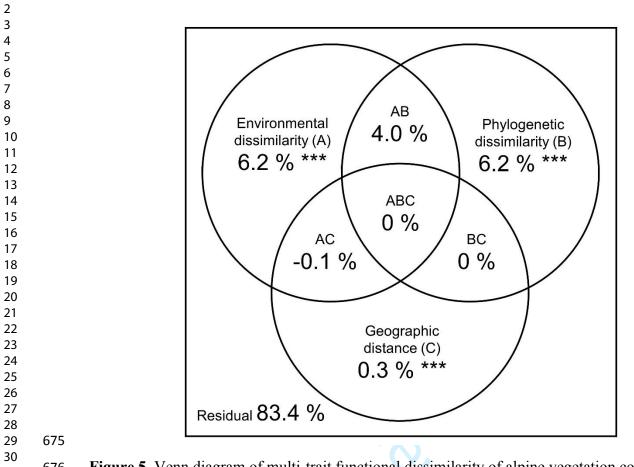


Figure 4. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) of alpine vegetation plots based on multi-trait functional dissimilarity, calculated using the first two principal components of six plant functional traits. The points represent the single vegetation plots. The colors represent major habitat types, climatic groups and biogeographic realms. The arrows represent the correlation of the individual functional traits with the NMDS scores and are based on the community weighted means of each trait. The total variance explained by the groups is reported in the bottom-right corner of each graph. SLA = Specific leaf area; LDMC = Leaf dry matter content. Significance codes: ***: p < 0.001; **: p < 0.01; *: p < 0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.



50676Figure 5. Venn diagram of multi-trait functional dissimilarity of alpine vegetation communities32677displaying variance partitioning among environmental dissimilarity (A), phylogenetic33678dissimilarity (B), and geographic distance (C) predictor matrices. Significance codes: ***:34679p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

Supporting Information for "Global functional variation in alpine vegetation"

Table S1. Correlations of single traits with the first two PCA axes. SLA = Specific leaf area;
LDMC = Leaf dry matter content.

Traits	PC1	PC2
SLA	0.55	-0.14
Leaf area	0.33	0.49
LDMC	-0.54	0.27
Plant height	-0.05	0.58
Leaf N	0.53	0.09
Seed mass	0.08	0.57

Table S2. Pair-wise dissimilarity of alpine vegetation trait pools between major habitat types for 6 plant functional traits. SLA = Specific leaf area; LDMC = Leaf dry matter content. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

Major habitat types	SLA	Leaf area	LDMC	Plant height	Leaf N	Seed mass
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests	0.08 ^{ns}	0.09 ^{ns}	0.04 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}	0.06 ^{ns}	0.13*
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate coniferous forests	0.18**	0.05 ^{ns}	0.19**	0.20**	0.15**	0.15*
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.23*	0.20**	0.17 ^{ns}	0.25**	0.10 ^{ns}	0.10 ⁿ
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tundra	0.11 ^{ns}	0.19**	0.17 ^{ns}	0.24**	0.09 ^{ns}	0.25*
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Temperate coniferous forests	0.17**	0.05 ^{ns}	0.16**	0.10 ^{ns}	0.21**	0.04 ⁿ
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.21 ^{ns}	0.22 ^{ns}	0.15 ^{ns}	0.36**	0.12 ^{ns}	0.09 ⁿ
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Tundra	0.16 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}	0.17 ^{ns}	0.13 ^{ns}	0.09 ^{ns}	0.13 ⁿ
Temperate coniferous forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	0.06 ^{ns}	0.20 ^{ns}	0.06 ^{ns}	0.45**	0.12 ^{ns}	0.11 ⁿ
Temperate coniferous forests - Tundra	0.15 ^{ns}	0.16 ^{ns}	0.24**	0.08 ^{ns}	0.17**	0.10 ⁿ
Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests - Tundra	0.21 ^{ns}	0.30 ^{ns}	0.22 ^{ns}	0.48**	0.11 ^{ns}	0.18 ⁿ

Table S3. Pair-wise dissimilarity of alpine vegetation trait pools between climatic groups for 6 plant functional traits. SLA = Specific leaf area; LDMC = Leaf dry matter content. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

Climatic groups	SLA	Leaf	LDMC	Plant	Leaf N	Seed
		area		height		mass
Continental - Oceanic	0.10**	0.07 ^{ns}	0.07 ^{ns}	0.09 ^{ns}	0.14**	0.11**
Continental - Subtropical	0.17**	0.09 ^{ns}	0.08 ^{ns}	0.31**	0.16**	0.08 ^{ns}
Oceanic - Subtropical	0.12 ^{ns}	0.14 ^{ns}	0.11 ^{ns}	0.39**	0.05 ^{ns}	0.16**

to Review Only

Table S4. Pair-wise dissimilarity of alpine vegetation trait pools between biogeographic realms for 6 plant functional traits. SLA = Specific leaf area; LDMC = Leaf dry matter content. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

Biogeographic realms	SLA	Leaf	LDMC	Plant	Leaf N	Seed
		area		height		mass
Afrotropic - Australasia	0.36*	0.11 ^{ns}	0.31 ^{ns}	0.23 ^{ns}	0.31 ^{ns}	0.14 ^{ns}
Afrotropic - Nearctic	0.06 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}	0.04 ^{ns}	0.41**	0.11 ^{ns}	0.07^{ns}
Afrotropic - Neotropic	0.40^{**}	0.25 ^{ns}	0.13 ^{ns}	0.07 ^{ns}	0.08 ^{ns}	0.23 ^{ns}
Afrotropic - Palearctic	0.03 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}	0.04 ^{ns}	0.43**	0.18**	0.07^{ns}
Australasia - Nearctic	0.34**	0.04 ^{ns}	0.33**	0.24**	0.40^{**}	0.19 ^{ns}
Australasia - Neotropic	0.13 ^{ns}	0.27^{**}	0.30 ^{ns}	0.25**	0.27 ^{ns}	0.12 ^{ns}
Australasia - Palearctic	0.34**	0.05 ^{ns}	0.30**	0.22**	0.43**	0.16**
Nearctic - Neotropic	0.36**	0.26**	0.12 ^{ns}	0.40^{**}	0.14 ^{ns}	0.27**
Nearctic - Palearctic	0.07 ^{ns}	0.02 ^{ns}	0.03 ^{ns}	0.17^{*}	0.09 ^{ns}	0.06 ^{ns}
Neotropic - Palearctic	0.38**	0.25**	0.13 ^{ns}	0.41**	0.18**	0.22**

U.38^{···} 0.25^{**} 0.13^{ns} 0.41^{**} 0.18^{**}

Table S5. Output of the pair-wise PERMANOVA and PERMDISP tests on multi-trait dissimilarities among alpine vegetation plots belonging to different major habitat types. R² values indicate the magnitude of the multivariate differences. Significant PERMDISP tests indicate absence of homogeneity in multivariate dispersions. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

	PERMA	PERMDISE	
	F Model	R ²	р
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate proadleaf and mixed forests	60.22	0.03*	***
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Temperate coniferous forests	656.69	0.12*	***
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	8.54	0.004*	ns
Montane grasslands and shrublands - Tundra	17.87	0.01*	ns
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Temperate coniferous forests	215.80	0.06*	*
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	26.81	0.05*	ns
Temperate broadleaf and mixed forests - Tundra	15.61	0.03*	*
Temperate coniferous forests - Tropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests	71.80	0.02*	**
Temperate coniferous forests - Tundra	21.34	0.01*	*
Fropical and subtropical moist broadleaf forests • Tundra	19.52	0.12*	ns

Table S6. Output of the pair-wise PERMANOVA and PERMDISP tests on multi-trait dissimilarities among alpine vegetation plots belonging to different climatic groups. R² values indicate the magnitude of the multivariate differences. Significant PERMDISP tests indicate absence of homogeneity in multivariate dispersions. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p<0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

PERMA F Model 156.19 86.20 110.18	R ² 0.03** 0.06** 0.02**	PERMDIS p *** ***
156.19 86.20	0.03** 0.06**	*** ***
86.20	0.06**	
	0.02**	
		ns

Table S7. Output of the pair-wise PERMANOVA and PERMDISP tests on multi-trait dissimilarities among alpine vegetation plots belonging to different climatic groups. R² values indicate the magnitude of the multivariate differences. Significant PERMDISP tests indicate absence of homogeneity in multivariate dispersions. Significance codes: ***: p<0.001; **: p< 0.01; *: p<0.05; ns: $p \ge 0.05$.

	PERMA	PERMDISP		
Biogeographic realms	F Model	R ²	Disp	
Afrotropic - Australasia	98.95	0.09*	***	
Afrotropic - Nearctic	33.78	0.04^{*}	*	
Afrotropic - Neotropic	12.50	0.04^{*}	**	
Afrotropic - Palearctic	53.13	0.01^{*}	***	
Australasia - Nearctic	806.15	0.35^{*}	***	
Australasia - Neotropic	130.72	0.11^{*}	***	
Australasia - Palearctic	1385.37	0.23^{*}	***	
Nearctic - Neotropic	127.52	0.14^{*}	ns	
Nearctic - Palearctic	81.10	0.02^{*}	***	
Neotropic - Palearctic	180.46	0.04^{*}	ns	

0.02* 0.04*

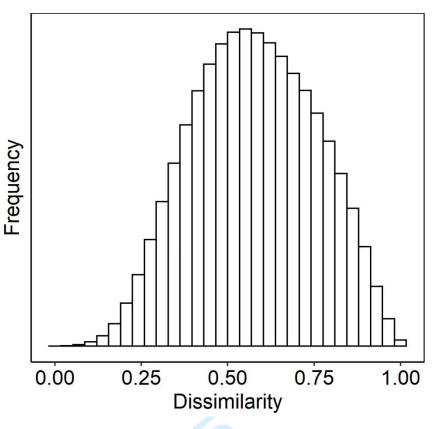


Figure S1. Distribution of multi-trait pair-wise functional dissimilarity values among alpine vegetation plots.