

Deciphering the developmental plasticity of walnut saplings in relation to climatic factors and light environment

Olivier Taugourdeau, Florence Chaubert-Pereira, Sylvie Sabatier, Yann Guédon

▶ To cite this version:

Olivier Taugourdeau, Florence Chaubert-Pereira, Sylvie Sabatier, Yann Guédon. Deciphering the developmental plasticity of walnut saplings in relation to climatic factors and light environment. Journal of Experimental Botany, 2011, 62 (15), pp.5283-5296. 10.1093/jxb/err115. hal-00828855

HAL Id: hal-00828855 https://inria.hal.science/hal-00828855v1

Submitted on 31 May 2013

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Deciphering the developmental plasticity of walnut saplings in

relation to climatic factors and light environment

3

1

2

- Olivier Taugourdeau¹, Florence Chaubert-Pereira², Sylvie Sabatier¹, Yann Guédon^{2*} 4
- 5 ¹CIRAD/UM2, UMR botAnique et bioinforMatique de l'Architecture des Plantes, TA A-
- 6 51/PS2, 34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, France (olivier.taugourdeau@cirad.fr, sylvie-
- 7 annabel.sabatier@cirad.fr)
- 8 ²CIRAD, UMR Amélioration Génétique et Adaptation des Plantes méditerranéennes et
- tropicales and INRIA, Virtual Plants, TA A-96/02, 34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, France 9
- 10 (chauchau64@gmail.com, guedon@cirad.fr)

11

12 *Corresponding author: guedon@cirad.fr,

13

- 14 5 Tables, 7 Figures
- 15

Running title: Developmental plasticity of walnuts saplings

16

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

Abstract 17

Developmental plasticity, the acclimation of plants to their local environment, is known to be crucial for the fitness of perennial organisms such as trees. However, deciphering the many possible developmental and environmental influences involved in such plasticity in natural conditions requires dedicated statistical models integrating developmental phases, environmental factors and inter-individual heterogeneity. These models should be able to analyze retrospective data (number of leaves or length of annual shoots along the main stem in our case). In this study Markov switching linear mixed models were applied to the analysis of the developmental plasticity of walnut saplings during the establishment phase in a mixed

1 Mediterranean forest. In the Markov switching linear mixed models estimated from walnut data

sets, the underlying Markov chain represents both the succession and lengths of growth phases,

while the linear mixed models represent both the influence of climatic factors and inter-

individual heterogeneity within each growth phase. On the basis of these integrative statistical

models, it is shown that walnut saplings have an opportunistic mode of development that is

primarily driven by the changing light environment. In particular, light availability explains the

ability of a tree to reach a phase of strong growth where the first branches can appear. It is also

shown that growth fluctuation amplitudes in response to climatic factors increased while inter-

individual heterogeneity decreased along tree development.

10

11

12

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

Key words: growth components; Juglans regia L.; linear mixed model; Markov switching

model; ontogeny; plant architecture.

13

14

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

Introduction

15 In natural conditions the developmental plasticity of trees is one of the main determinants of

forest successional dynamics. In particular, the early life period to a large extent conditions the

modalities of replacement of senescent trees by young trees. In understory, tree growth is

driven by light availability with substantial differences according to shade tolerance (Wright et

al., 2000) and climatic factors (Sanchez-Gomez et al., 2008). Here, our objective was to study

the establishment phase of trees by focusing on apical growth and branching of young trees

growing in a mixed forest. One of the major difficulties when studying developmental plasticity

is the "real-world complexity of multiple biotic and abiotic variables" (Miner et al., 2005).

Hence a decomposition approach should be applied to identify and characterize the different

variables that influence tree development.

Tree structure development can be reconstructed at a given observation date from external morphological markers (such as cataphyll and branching scars) that correspond to past events (Barthélémy and Caraglio, 2007). Observed apical growth, as given for instance by the length of successive annual shoots along a tree main stem, is assumed to result mainly from three components: an ontogenetic component, an environmental component and an individual component (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2009). The ontogenetic component is assumed to be structured as a succession of roughly stationary growth phases that are asynchronous between individuals (Guédon et al., 2007). A phase is said to be stationary if there is no systematic change in mean (no trend), no systematic change in variance and no strictly periodic variation of the variable of interest. The key question tackled in Guédon et al. (2007) was whether the ontogenetic growth component along an axis at the growth unit or annual shoot scale takes the form of a trend (i.e. a gradual change in the mean level) or of a succession of phases. Their results support the assumption of abrupt changes between roughly stationary phases rather than gradual changes. The environmental component is assumed to take the form of local fluctuations that are synchronous between individuals. This environmental component is thus assumed to be a "population" component as opposed to the individual component which represents the growth level deviation in each phase of a tree with reference to the "average" tree. The individual component may cover effects of diverse origins but always includes a genetic effect (Sabatier et al., 2003a; Segura et al., 2008). Other effects correspond to the tree's local environment (e.g. light resources); see Pinno et al. (2001) and Dolezal et al. (2004).

21

22

23

24

25

20

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

Here, we propose to use Markov switching linear mixed models (Chaubert-Pereira *et al.*, 2010) to analyze growth components of walnut saplings. In a Markov switching linear mixed model, the underlying Markov chain represents both the succession and lengths of growth phases, while the linear mixed models attached to each state of the Markov chain represent both the

effect of time-varying climatic explanatory variables and inter-individual heterogeneity. The effect of climatic explanatory variables is modeled as a fixed effect and inter-individual heterogeneity as a random effect. Thus, the introduction of random effects makes it possible to decompose the total variability into two parts: variability due to inter-individual heterogeneity and residual variability. In this study, Markov switching models were identified using semi-Markov switching models, a more general family of models that encompasses as particular 7 cases Markov switching models. In a semi-Markov switching model, the length of each growth phase is explicitly modeled by a dedicated parametric discrete distribution (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2009) while in a Markov switching model, the length of each growth phase is implicitly modeled by a geometric distribution, which is the unique "memoryless" discrete distribution. This led us to contrast the development of saplings in understory with the development of trees in managed forest stands studied by Chaubert-Pereira et al. (2009).

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

1

2

3

4

5

6

8

9

10

11

12

Markov switching linear mixed models were applied to the analysis of successive annual shoots along walnut main stems using two possible response variables, namely (i) the number of leaves per annual shoot corresponding to organogenesis alone and (ii) annual shoot length, corresponding to organogenesis and elongation, and two climatic explanatory variables, namely (i) average daily maximum temperature and (ii) cumulative rainfall. The building of two models, one corresponding to organogenesis alone and the other corresponding to organogenesis and elongation can be viewed as a way to refine the decomposition of tree growth that is intrinsic to Markov switching linear mixed models. Light environments were also compared for four tree categories deduced from the statistical modeling. The objective was to study the relationship between the architecture of these juvenile trees growing in a mixed Mediterranean forest and the two selected climatic factors and the local light environment.

- 1 The aim of this study was to assess the effects of the environment on understory saplings
- 2 development. In this study, the ontogeny was viewed as "a developmentally programmed
- 3 growth trajectory preadjusted to the most likely environments; the surrounding environments
- 4 mainly affect the rate at which saplings move along this trajectory." (Yagi, 2009). Two main
- 5 hypotheses were tested: (i) unfavorable light environment delays tree ontogeny but without
- 6 impacting growth potential and, (ii) The effects of climatic factors depend on the ontogenetic
- 7 stage.

8

9

Materials and methods

10

11

12

Materials

Study site

- 13 The studied stand was a Mediterranean mixed forest located near Montpellier (43°40'33" N;
- 14 3°51'53" E) in the south of France. Mean stand elevation is 57 m and the climate is typically
- 15 Mediterranean (dry summer, rainfall mainly in autumn and spring) with mean annual
- cumulative rainfall of 732 mm, an annual mean daily maximum temperature of 20.2°C and an
- annual mean daily minimum temperature of 9.4°C for the period 1977-2006. The forest canopy
- mainly consisted of crowns of Quercus ilex L., Quercus pubescens Willd., Pinus halepensis
- 19 Mill. and *Tilia platyphyllos* Scop.. The understory consisted of saplings of *Q. ilex*, *Q. pubescens*,
- 20 T. platyphyllos, Celtis australis L., Prunus avium L., and Juglans regia L.. Hedera helix L. and
- 21 Ruscus aculeatus L. covered the ground. The transmitted light, i.e. the percentage of incident
- radiations not intercepted by the canopy, ranged from 5 to 35 % in the studied understory.

23

24

Tree data set

In this study, 138 saplings of walnut (*Juglans regia* L.) were measured in a natural population

(see Figs. 1 and 2). Since only one mother tree was present at the edge of the studied stand, we suspect that most of the saplings were half-brothers. The successive annual shoots along the main stems were entirely preformed, i.e. all the organs of the next-year elongated shoot were present at an embryonic stage in the winter bud. The limit between two successive annual shoots is marked by a zone of short internodes and scale leaves (Sabatier and Barthélémy, 2001) which facilitates the retrospective measurement of successive annual shoots along the main stem. In March 2007 before bud break, the main stems of the trees were described by annual shoot and three quantitative variables were recorded for each annual shoot: number of leaves (between 2 to 12), length in cm (between 1 and 49 cm; see Figs. 1 and 2) and number of branches. Of the 138 trees measured, 22 were branched. The measured trees were between 3 and 31 years old. All these trees were in the juvenile phase (i.e. before the first flowering occurrence) the last year considered.

The very first annual shoot corresponding to the germination year was not included in the analysis as it is far longer than the subsequent annual shoots and its length (range: 2-53 cm; mean: 20.22 cm; standard deviation: 6.54 cm) is greatly dependent on seed mass. The correlation coefficients between the length of this very first annual shoot and the length of each of the five subsequent annual shoot were not significantly different from 0 (as well as between the length of this very first annual shoot and the cumulative length of the - from two to five subsequent annual shoots). Hence, the length of this first annual shoot was not related to subsequent tree development. This can be interpreted as the fact that the local environment had a far stronger effect on the sapling development after the first year of growth than the seed mass. After the germination year, the length of successive annual shoots increased along the main stem. Individuals showed synchronous inter-annual fluctuations the amplitude of which was roughly proportional to the growth level (i.e. average shoot length within a phase) (Fig. 1).

1 These inter-annual fluctuations were thus assumed to be mainly of climatic origin.

Meteorological data set

- 2 Data for daily maximum temperature (°C) and cumulative rainfall (in mm) were provided by
- 3 INRA-Montpellier (Lavalette site, a nearby meteorological field station) for the period from
- 4 1977 to 2006 (the last year considered).

5

6

Measuring light and leaf mass area

- 7 Light availability in the understory was quantified by hemispherical photography. Photographs
- 8 were taken in May 2007 after leaf expansion of canopy species, above the terminal bud of the
- 9 main stem of each studied tree. The photographs were taken using a horizontally-leveled digital
- 10 camera (CoolPix 8400, Nikon) mounted on a tripod and aimed at the zenith. A fish-eye lens
- providing a 180° field of view was employed (Coolpix FC-E9, Nikon). These photographs were
- analyzed for canopy openness (i.e. percentage of open sky) and percentage of light transmitted
- by the forest canopy during the growing season (i.e. April-October) using GLA2 software
- 14 (Frazer et al., 1999). Theses two indicators are commonly used to compare sapling light
- environments (Kobe and Hogarth, 2007).

16

- 17 Leaf dry mass per unit leaf area (LMA) was computed from a 5 cm² piece of lamina (i.e.
- without the leaflet midrib) taken from one leaflet per tree. These leaflets were sampled in
- similar positions within the 2007 main stem shoot. This sampling was completed in a single
- 20 two-hour period during the 2007 summer. LMA computed in this manner is generally
- 21 considered as a reliable indicator of leaf structure (Niinemets 1999).

22

23

Methods

Markov and semi-Markov switching linear mixed models

- 2 In the analysis we considered two possible tree response variables: (i) the number of leaves per
- 3 annual shoot and (ii) the length of the annual shoot in cm. In cases where climatic explanatory
- 4 variables are available, a statistical model for analyzing this type of tree growth data should be
- 5 able to model jointly:

1

- the succession of roughly stationary growth phases that are asynchronous between
- 7 individuals,
- 8 the effect of time-varying climatic explanatory variables,
- 9 inter-individual heterogeneity.
- 10 We therefore chose to build Markov switching linear mixed models. This family of statistical
- 11 models broadens the family of Markov switching linear models; see Frühwirth-Schnatter
- 12 (2006) for an overview of Markov switching models. A Markov switching linear mixed model
- 13 combines:

- a non-observable *J*-state Markov chain which represents the succession of growth
- phases and their lengths where each state of the Markov chain represents a growth phase.
- A *J*-state Markov chain is defined by two subsets of parameters:
- 1. Initial probabilities $(\pi_i; j = 1,..., J)$ to model which is the first phase occurring
- in the sequence measured for a tree,
- 19 2. Transition probabilities $(p_{ij}; i, j = 1,..., J)$ to model the succession of growth
- 20 phases and their lengths along the main stem.
- 22 J linear mixed models, each one attached to a state of the underlying Markov chain.
- Each linear mixed model represents, in the corresponding growth phase, both the effect
- of time-varying climatic explanatory variables as fixed effects and inter-individual

heterogeneity as a random effect; see Verbeke and Molenberghs (2000) for an overview

2 of linear mixed models applied to longitudinal data.

3

4 The observed annual shoot length $Y_{a,t}$ for tree a being in state j at year t is modeled by the

5 following linear mixed model:

$$Y_{a,t} = \beta_{i1} + \beta_{i2} X_{2,t} + \beta_{i3} X_{3,t} + \tau_i \xi_{a,i} + \varepsilon_{a,t},$$

7 where:

9

10

11

12

13

15

16

17

18

8 - $\beta_{j1} + \beta_{j2} X_{2,t} + \beta_{j3} X_{3,t}$ is the contribution of the fixed effects for state j, β_{j1} the intercept

which represents the average growth level, β_{j2} the regression parameter for average daily

maximum temperature, $X_{2,t}$ the average daily maximum temperature common to all the trees

that is relevant for year t, β_{j3} the regression parameter for cumulative rainfall, $X_{3,t}$ the

cumulative rainfall common to all the trees that is relevant for year t. It should be noticed that

the tree response to time-varying climatic factors is most often delayed and "smoothed".

14 - $\xi_{a,j} \sim N(0,1)$ is the random effect attached to tree a being in state j and τ_j the standard

deviation induced by the inter-individual heterogeneity in state j. The random effects are

assumed to follow the standard Gaussian distribution N(0,1). Individual tree status is assumed

to be different in each growth phase. For a given individual, the average shoot length within a

phase can be higher than that of the "average tree" then lower in the following phase.

19 - $\varepsilon_{a,t} \mid S_{a,t} = j \sim N(0, \sigma_j^2)$ is the error term corresponding to tree a being in state j at year t

and σ_j^2 is the residual variance.

21

23

20

When considering the number of leaves per annual shoot, the linear mixed model is similar

except for the cumulative rainfall fixed effect which is not incorporated; see the Results for

1 justifications. The introduction of random effects makes it possible to decompose the total

2 variability Γ_i^2 in state *j* into two parts:

$$\Gamma_j^2 = \tau_j^2 + \sigma_j^2,$$

4 where τ_j^2 is the variability due to inter-individual heterogeneity and σ_j^2 is the residual

5 variability. The proportion of inter-individual heterogeneity is defined by the ratio between the

6 random effect variance τ_j^2 and the total variance Γ_j^2 .

7

8

9

10

11

13

14

15

Markov switching linear mixed models were estimated using a Monte Carlo expectation

maximization (MCEM)-like algorithm (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2010). At convergence of the

iterative estimation algorithm, the median predicted random effects were computed for each

individual based on the random effects predicted for each state in each sampled state sequence.

12 The most probable state sequence given the median predicted random effects was computed for

each observed sequence using a Viterbi-like algorithm. This restored state sequence can be

considered as the optimal segmentation of the corresponding observed sequence into sub-

sequences, each corresponding to a given growth phase.

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

Standard errors for the regression parameters of Markov switching linear mixed models were

computed using a Monte Carlo version of the Louis method (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2010). In

our case of non-ergodic models (a model is said to be ergodic if each state is visited many

times), we chose also to compute $\beta_{jk} \times \text{mad}_j(X_k)$ for each state j where $\text{mad}_j(X_k)$ is the

mean absolute deviation of the climatic explanatory variable k in state j. This indicator gives

empirical evidence of the significant or non-significant character of the corresponding climatic

23 effect.

A useful generalization of Markov switching linear mixed models lies in the class of semi-2 Markov switching linear mixed models (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2010) where the underlying 3 Markov chain is replaced by an underlying semi-Markov chain. In a semi-Markov chain, the process moves out of a given state according to a Markov chain with self-transition probability in nonabsorbing states $\tilde{p}_{ii} = 0$. This embedded Markov chain represents transitions between 5 distinct states except in the absorbing state case. A state is said to be absorbing if, after entering 7 this state, it is impossible to leave it. An explicit occupancy (or sojourn time) distribution is attached to each nonabsorbing state to model the growth phase length in number of years. The whole (embedded Markov chain + explicit state occupancy distributions) constitutes a semi-10 Markov chain. The mechanism associated with a semi-Markov chain can be described as follows: suppose that between two consecutive times, a transition occurred between state i and state j with probability \tilde{p}_{ij} . The process remains in state j for a period u determined randomly by the corresponding state occupancy distribution $\{d_i(u); u = 1, 2, ...\}$. Then the process moves to another state according to the transition distribution attached to state j $\left(\widetilde{p}_{jk}; k=1,...,J\right)$. 14 Markov and semi-Markov switching linear mixed models are implemented in a module that 16 will be integrated in the OpenAlea software platform for plant modeling (Pradal et al., 2008). Complementary statistical analyses were performed using R. Markov and semi-Markov switching linear mixed models are formally defined in the Appendix. 18

19

20

21

17

1

4

6

8

9

11

12

13

15

Results

Choice of climatic explanatory variables

22 In walnut, organogenesis occurs from early April to late May of the previous year and organ 23 elongation occurs the current year during the same period (Sabatier et al., 2003b). We chose to 24 build two statistical models, the first corresponding to organogenesis alone where the tree response variable is the number of leaves per annual shoot, and the second corresponding to organogenesis and elongation where the tree response variable is the annual shoot length. Since both the number of leaves and the length of successive annual shoots increased along the main stem (Fig. 1), these variables could not be considered as stationary and non-ergodic models, in our case "left-right" models (see below), were built. We chose to use average daily maximum temperature and cumulative rainfall and to center these climatic explanatory variables; see Fitzmaurice *et al.* (2004) for discussion of the centering issue. Because of the centering, the intercept β_{j1} is directly interpretable as the average number of leaves per annual shoot in growth phase *j.* In a first step, we tested different climatic explanatory variables for the "number of leaves" model. We did not identify a significant cumulative rainfall effect for this model whatever the period tested. The maximum temperature explanatory variable selected for the "number of leaves" model was then incorporated in the "annual shoot length" model and other climatic explanatory variables were tested in a second step for this model.

In order to determine the most significant period for average daily maximum temperature, a "left-right" three-state Markov switching linear model (i.e. without random effects for modeling inter-individual heterogeneity) composed of two transient states followed by a final absorbing state was first estimated for different periods covering the organogenesis period on the basis of the number of leaves per annual shoot; see below for the choice of the number of states of the underlying Markov chain. A state is said to be transient if after leaving this state it is impossible to return to it. In a "left-right" model, the states are therefore ordered and each state can be visited at most once. In this sensitivity analysis, we selected the period on the basis of observed data log-likelihood (results not shown). Centered average daily maximum temperature in °C from April to May of the previous year, which covered one organogenesis period, was finally selected.

A "left-right" three-state Markov switching linear model was then estimated on the basis of annual shoot length of walnuts for different temperature periods preceding the end of elongation and for different rainfall periods covering organogenesis and/or elongation. In addition to centered average daily maximum temperature in °C from April to May of the previous year, centered cumulative rainfall (in mm) from June to December of the previous year, which covered the period during which carbohydrate reserves were accumulated for bud break (Lacointe *et al.*, 1995), was finally selected.

Population properties

We first estimated a "left-right" three-state semi-Markov switching linear model (i.e. without random effects). Since the estimated state occupancy distributions for states 1 and 2 were quite close to 1-shifted geometric distributions (see the shape parameter r and the mean and standard deviation of the estimated state occupancy distributions in Table 1), we chose to estimate Markov switching linear models based on simple Markov chains. For both the "number of leaves" and the "annual shoot length" models, the log-likelihood of the observed sequences for the Markov switching linear model was close to the log-likelihood of the observed sequences for the semi-Markov switching linear model (Table 1). We thus chose to use Markov switching models for subsequent analyses. The identification of approximately geometrically distributed phase length can be interpreted as the consequence of an opportunistic growth process mainly driven by local environment constraints. It should be recalled that the geometric distribution is the unique discrete "memoryless" distribution which means that the fact that a tree was in a given growth phase for a certain number of years in no way affects the probability that it will stay for k further years in this phase or make a transition to the subsequent growth phase.

"Left-right" three-state Markov switching linear mixed models were estimated on the basis of either the number of leaves per annual shoot or the annual shoot lengths of walnuts. We applied the practical approach discussed in Guédon et al. (2007) to determine the number of states of the underlying Markov chain. For each tree response variable, the iterative estimation algorithm was initialized with a "left-right" model such that $\pi_i > 0$ for each state j, $p_{ij} = 0$ for j < i and $p_{ij} > 0$ for $j \ge i$. The fact that states 1 and 2 are the only possible initial states (with $\pi_1 = 0.79$ and π_2 = 0.21 at convergence for the "number of leaves" model and π_1 = 0.68 and π_2 = 0.32 for the "annual shoot length" model) and that state 2 cannot be skipped (i.e. $p_{13} = 0$ at convergence) is the result of the iterative estimation procedure; see Fig. 3 for the "number of leaves" model and Fig. 4 for the "annual shoot length" model. This deterministic succession of states supports the assumption of a succession of growth phases. For the two estimated models, we checked that sub-sequences extracted for the three states according to the optimal segmentation do not exhibit residual trends within the corresponding phase; see Guédon et al. (2007) for details concerning methods used to assess the stationarity assumption.

Whilst the transition probabilities are different for the two estimated Markov chains ($p_{11} = 0.81$ and $p_{22} = 0.94$ for the "number of leaves" model while $p_{11} = 0.91$ and $p_{22} = 0.9$ for the "annual shoot length" model), mean times up to the first occurrence of state 3 computed from model parameters were fairly similar ($\eta_3 = 19.66$ for the "number of leaves" model and $\eta_3 = 16.9$ for the "annual shoot length" model); see Table 2. This may be explained by the fact that the first two growth phases are less separated than the last two growth phases, particularly for the "number of leaves" model; see below the analysis of the marginal observation distributions. In this respect, the fact that a certain proportion of the trees started directly in

state 2 (with $\pi_2 = 0.21$ for the "number of leaves" model and $\pi_2 = 0.32$ for the "annual shoot

length" model) should not be given too much meaning.

3

6

7

8

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

2

It should be noted that the succession of growth phases is characterized by an increase in the number of leaves per annual shoot or in the length of the annual shoot and by an increase in the

variability of annual shoot length; see Table 3 and Fig. 3a for the "number of leaves" model and

Table 4 and Fig. 4a for the "annual shoot length" model. The marginal observation distribution

of the linear mixed model attached to growth phase j is the Gaussian distribution $N(\mu_j, \Gamma_j^2)$

9 with $\mu_j = \beta_{j1} + \beta_{j2}E_j(X_2)$ for the "number of leaves" model and

 $\mu_j = \beta_{j1} + \beta_{j2}E_j(X_2) + \beta_{j3}E_j(X_3)$ for the "annual shoot length" model, where $E_j(X_2)$ is the

mean centered average daily maximum temperature in growth phase j and $E_j(X_3)$ is the mean

centered cumulative rainfall in growth phase j. Depending on the tree response variable of

interest, the marginal observation distribution represents either the number of leaves per annual

shoot or the annual shoot length in growth phase j. The marginal observation distributions for

states 2 and 3 are more separated (less overlap between the marginal observation distributions)

than the marginal observation distributions for states 1 and 2, particularly for the "annual shoot

length" model; compare the mean difference $\mu_{j+1} - \mu_j$ with the standard deviations Γ_j and

 Γ_{j+1} for the two estimated Markov switching linear mixed models in Tables 3 and 4 and see

also Figs. 3a and 4a. The two main tree categories thus consisted of trees not reaching growth

phase 3 and trees reaching growth phase 3 (on the basis of the "annual shoot length" model). In

particular, all branched trees belonged to this latter category.

22

23

24

For the "number of leaves" model, the temperature effect was not considered as significant; see

Table 3. For the "annual shoot length" model, the temperature effect and the cumulative rainfall

1 effect were weak in the first growth phase (of slowest growth) while they were stronger in the 2 last two growth phases (less in the second than in the third phase); see Table 4. This behavior is 3 similar to that observed in Corsican pine and sessile oak when analyzing the effect of 4 cumulative rainfall alone on annual shoot length using a semi-Markov switching linear mixed model (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2009). However, the temperature effect was more marked than 5 6 the cumulative rainfall effect in each growth phase. This difference increased markedly in 7 growth phase 3. The ratio between the temperature effect and the cumulative rainfall effect was 8 approximately 1.9, 3.1 and 3.6 in growth phases 1, 2 and 3, respectively; see the ratio $\{\beta_{i2} \times \text{mad}_{i}(X_{2})\}/\{\beta_{i3} \times \text{mad}_{i}(X_{3})\}$ in Table 4. The two selected climatic factors thus had an 10 impact on elongation but had little effect on organogenesis.

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

9

Individual behavior

The proportion of inter-individual heterogeneity was greater in the first two growth phases with more than 47% for the "number of leaves" model and more than 43% for the "annual shoot length" model, before decreasing markedly in the last growth phase (approx. 29% and 26%, respectively); see Tables 3 and 4. Because of the genetic proximity between the trees, we suspect that a large part of the inter-individual heterogeneity may be explained by the heterogeneous environment of the trees. This local environment was a stronger constraint in the first two growth phases than in the last where the comparatively larger trees were less sensitive to competitions for light and mineral nutrients. The growth phases identified by the estimated Markov switching linear mixed models are thus not only defined by the average number of leaves per annual shoot or annual shoot length but also by the amplitude of synchronous fluctuations between individuals due to climatic factors and by the proportion of interindividual heterogeneity.

1 For the "number of leaves" and "annual shoot length" models, all the 22 branched walnuts, except one for the "number of leaves" model, reached growth phase 3 whereas only about 25% 2 of the 116 unbranched walnuts reached this growth phase (25 of 116 for the "number of leaves" 3 4 model and 30 of 116 for the "annual shoot length" model); see Table 5. For the branched trees, the time interval between the beginning of growth phase 3 and the first branching occurrence 5 was extracted on the basis of the optimal segmentation of the observed sequence computed 6 7 using the "annual shoot length" model. The mean time interval was 3.33 years (standard 8 deviation: 2.85 years) indicating that the first branching occurrence requires a time interval with respect to the beginning of the third growth phase.

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

9

Light environment effect

The growth phase in 2006 (the last year considered), according to the optimal segmentation of the observed sequence computed using the "annual shoot length" model, and the absence/presence of branches, was used to define four tree categories: (i) trees in growth phase 1, (ii) trees in growth phase 2, (iii) unbranched trees in growth phase 3 and (iv) branched trees in growth phase 3. Canopy openness, transmitted light and LMA (during the 2007 growth period) were compared between these four tree categories (Fig. 5). According to the Tukey test, the values computed for the trees in growth phases 1 and 2 were not significantly different for each light environment indicator. These trees had lower values for canopy openness, transmitted light and LMA than trees in growth phase 3. Trees in the first two growth phases were therefore growing in a more shaded environment than trees in growth phase 3. Canopy openness and transmitted light values computed for the unbranched and branched trees in growth phase 3 were not significantly different. LMA was the only indicator with significantly different values between unbranched and branched trees in growth phase 3.

- 1 The average tree profile (i.e. $\beta_{s_a,1} + \beta_{s_a,2} \times$ centered average daily maximum temperature +
- 2 $\beta_{s_a,3} \times$ centered cumulative rainfall for each year t) and the predicted tree profile (i.e. average
- 3 tree profile value + $\tau_{s_{a,t}} \xi_{a,s_{a,t}}$ for each year t) were computed for each tree a on the basis of the
- 4 optimal segmentation of the observed sequence and the predicted random effects computed
- 5 using the "annual shoot length" model. The regression parameters β_{j1} , β_{j2} and β_{j3} describe
- 6 patterns of change in the mean response over years (and their relationship to explanatory
- 7 variables) in the walnut population, while $\tau_j \xi_{a,j}$ describes the deviation in growth phase j of
- 8 the ath tree profile with reference to the average tree profile; see Fig. 6 for the predicted tree
- 9 profiles of 6 representative individuals. Four types of tree growth profile were identified:
- 10 Trees characterized by regularly spaced phase changes; see for instance tree 123 where
- the lengths of growth phases 1 and 2 were similar (4 years in growth phase 1 and 5
- 12 years in growth phase 2);
- Trees with constant slow growth; see tree 86 which remained in growth phase 1. These
- trees remained in unfavorable local conditions (dark understory) throughout the period
- considered;
- Trees with a long period of slow growth followed by a rapid increase in the annual
- shoot length corresponding to growth phase changes; see trees 58 and 133. We suspect
- that these phase changes were due to a rapid modification of the understory light
- 19 environment enabling a rapid growth increase followed by first branching (see tree 133)
- despite a long period of slow growth. In this type of tree growth profile, the predicted
- random effects in growth phases 1 and 3 did not seem to be related and the long phase
- of slow growth did not seem to affect subsequent tree development;
- Trees with a short period of slow growth before a long period of strong growth; see
- trees 130 and 124. These trees tended to branch.

2 Tree status with reference to the average tree may be common to all the growth phases but

modulated in terms of deviations between growth phases; see for example trees 130 and 124 in

Fig. 6. Tree status may also be different in each growth phase; see for example trees 58 and 133

in Fig. 6. The more general assumption of a random effect attached to each growth phase is

thus more representative of walnut behavior than the assumption of a random effect common to

7 all growth phases.

Discussion

Walnuts in understory: a shade avoidance response pattern

Trees in the third growth phase in 2006 (the last year considered) were growing in a more luminous environment and had greater LMA than trees in the first two growth phases. Light availability is certainly the main factor that explains a tree's ability to reach the third phase of strongest growth; see Niinemets (1999) for the link between LMA and light availability. Walnuts showed opportunistic growth in understory characterized by their capability to increase their apical growth suddenly in response to a change in the local light environment, for instance arising from a treefall gap. This result is supported by a cross-sectional study of a subsample of the same walnut data set (Taugourdeau and Sabatier, 2010). This behavior corresponds to a shade avoidance strategy (Henry and Aarssen, 2001). Because of the sample size (138 trees) and the marked heterogeneity of the studied mixed forest, the local environment of the trees and its time variations can be considered as sufficiently randomized. This explains the emergence of geometric phase length distributions for both the "number of leaves" and the "annual shoot length" models. This contrasts with the successive growth phases with bell-shaped length distributions such as in Corsican pines and sessile oaks in managed forest stands (Chaubert-Pereira et al., 2009). In this latter case, the well-defined successive growth phases

1 were mainly the expression of endogenous equilibriums while in the case studied here, the

phase length was the result of an opportunistic process corresponding to a tree's plastic response

to environmental changes.

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

2

3

The transition to the third growth phase was related to a reduction in inter-individual

heterogeneity. Because of the genetic proximity between the trees (same mother), this may be

interpreted as the effect of the local environment on the growth of each tree. In the first two

growth phases, young trees, whatever their local environment, were mixed up with older trees

in unfavorable local environments while only trees in reasonably favorable local environments

reached the third growth phase. This is somewhat similar to the environmental filter concept:

see Diaz et al. (1999). A complementary explanation lies in the fact that large trees (in the third

growth phase) were less sensitive than smaller trees to the local environment.

13

14

15

16

17

18

Markov switching linear mixed model allowed us to highlight the fact that a long period of

suppression has no negative effect on subsequent growth after canopy opening. This is

illustrated for instance by tree 58 (Fig. 6) which grew faster than the average tree in the third

growth phase despite a long period of suppression corresponding to the first growth phase.

Wright et al. (2000) came to the same conclusion on the basis of tree ring data.

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

Walnut exhibits strong apical dominance in shaded environments since lateral buds only

develop after canopy opening (Fig. 7a). This corresponds to a shade avoidance strategy

characterized by a major investment in vertical growth to reach higher irradiance strata and a

marked response to changes in the light environment (Wright et al., 2000; Henry and Aarssen

2001). This is consistent with the "heliophil status" of walnut. Henry and Aarssen (2001)

suggest that a shade tolerance strategy is specific of species growing in the deepest shaded

1 environments and a shade avoidance strategy is specific of species growing in environments

characterized by high vertical and horizontal heterogeneity of light availability such as in the

studied understory. Light quality was not quantified in this study but is known to be related to

4 the shade avoidance strategy (Franklin and Whitelam, 2005).

5

2

3

6 Some shade-tolerant species accommodate to a shaded environment by an important lateral

7 development. For instance, fir has long lifespan branches and needles (Mori et al., 2008) in a

shaded environment. The response of walnut to shade is very different since it consists of

producing juvenile deciduous compound leaves characterized by dentate leaflets.

10

11

13

14

15

16

17

8

9

Effects of temperature and rainfall on annual growth

12 The effect of average daily maximum temperature and cumulative rainfall was weak in the first

phase where shade drastically limited tree development (Fig. 7b). It then increased markedly in

the subsequent growth phases. This is consistent both with the results of Mediavilla and

Escudero (2004) concerning the response to drought of trees at different stages of development

and with the facilitation hypothesis proposed by Holmgren (2000); see also Sack (2004) for a

discussion about ecological consequences.

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

The proposed modeling approach highlighted the positive effect of average daily maximum

temperature during shoot organogenesis on the next-year assimilative leaf number (one-year-

delayed response). The relationship between temperature and organogenesis has been well

established and is the basis of the thermal time concept applied mainly to annual plants

(Bonhomme, 2000). The effect of temperature has generally been studied in plants where shoot

elongation occurs just after shoot organogenesis, making it difficult to separate the effect on

organogenesis from the effect on elongation. In the current study of a temperate perennial

species, the one year delay between shoot organogenesis and elongation enabled to clearly

decipher the temperature effect. The delay between the change in environment and the plant's

response may be an adaptative drawback since such a delayed response may not be appropriate

in case of rapid change of the environment (Valladares et al., 2007).

5

7

8

9

10

11

12

2

3

4

6 The temperature during organogenesis influences the next-year assimilative leaf number but

also, and to a greater extent, the annual shoot length. This result may at first sight appear to be

counterintuitive since we did not identify other periods where annual shoot length was affected

by average daily maximum temperature. We therefore suspect that the average daily maximum

temperature during organogenesis not only influences the number of organs but also the

number of cells, and consequently the length of the corresponding internodes; see Ripetti et al.

(2008) and references therein.

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

Modeling forest structure and successional dynamics in a context of climate change

Markov switching linear mixed models were applied to identify and characterize the effects of

ontogeny, climatic factors and local environment on tree establishment. At a coarser scale, the

outputs of these individual models could be incorporated into models of forest structure and

successional dynamics:

Predictions about possible rank reversal (i.e. changes in interspecific competition) in

mixed forest due to climate change can also be made; see Sánchez-Gómez et al. (2008)

for a discussion about the ecological consequences of rank reversal. For example, a

warmer and drier Mediterranean climate (Christensen et al., 2007) would have

antagonist effects on walnut growth: the increased temperature would have a positive

effect but the decreased rainfall would have a negative effect. Local rainfall and

temperature predictions for 2050 (ARPEGE/IFS model; Déqué et al., 1994) would have

- a positive effect on the studied walnuts in the third growth phase (+1 leaf and +9 cm per annual shoot) because of the relative importance of temperature on growth. These predictions assume that the selected climatic factors are not subject to threshold effects.
 - The structure of a population can be characterized at a given date by the proportion of trees in the different growth phases. We expect this classification based on a decomposition of tree growth components to be more robust than alternative classifications based on direct measurements (e.g. diameter measured at breast height).

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to Michaël Gueroult for his help in collecting field data, to INRA for freely providing meteorological data, to Yves Caraglio, Pierre Couteron and Nick Rowe for useful comments, to the handling Editor and an anonymous reviewer for their helpful comments that led to an improvement in the presentation of this paper.

Literature cited

Barthélémy D, Caraglio Y. 2007. Plant architecture: a dynamic, multilevel and comprehensive approach to plant form, structure and ontogeny. *Annals of Botany* **99**: 375-407.

Bonhomme R. 2000. Bases and limits to using 'degree.day' units. *European Journal of Agronomy* **13**: 1-10.

Chaubert-Pereira F, Caraglio Y, Lavergne C, Guédon Y. 2009. Identifying ontogenetic, environmental and individual components of forest tree growth. *Annals of Botany* **104**: 883-896.

Chaubert-Pereira F, Guédon Y, Lavergne C, Trottier C. 2010. Markov and semi-Markov switching linear mixed models used to identify forest tree growth components. *Biometrics* 66(3): 753-762.

Christensen JH, Hewitson B, Busuioc A, Chen A, Gao X, Held I, Jones R, Kolli RK, Kwon W-T, Laprise R, Magaña Rueda V, Mearns L, Menéndez CG, Räisänen J, Rinke A, Sarr A, Whetton P. 2007. Regional Climate Projections. In: Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, Chen Z, Marquis M, Averyt KB, Tignor M, Miller HL. (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Déqué M, Dreveton C, Braun A, Cariolle D. 1994. The ARPEGE/IFS atmosphere model: a contribution to the French community climate modelling. *Climate Dynamics* **10**: 249-266.

Diaz S, Cabido M, Zak M, Carretero EM, Aranibar J. 1999. Plant functional traits, ecosystem structure and land-use history along a climatic gradient in central-western Argentina. *Journal of Vegetation Science* **10**: 651-660.

Dolezal J, Ishii H, Vetrova VP, Sumida A, Hara T. 2004. Tree growth and competition in a *Betula platyphylla-Larix cajanderi* post-fire forest in central Kamchatka. *Annals of Botany* **94**: 333-343.

Fitzmaurice GM, Laird NM, Ware JH. 2004. *Applied longitudinal analysis.* Wiley Series in Probability and Statistics. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Franklin KA, Whitelam GC. 2005. Phytochromes and shade-avoidance responses in plants. *Annals of Botany* **96**: 169 -175.

Frazer GW, Canham CD, Lertzman KP. 1999. Gap Light Analyzer (GLA), Version 2.0: Imaging software to extract canopy structure and gap light transmission indices from true-colour fisheye photographs, users manual and program documentation. Simon Fraser University, Burnaby BC, and the Institute of Ecosystem Studies, Millbrook, NY.

Frühwirth-Schnatter S. 2006. *Finite Mixture and Markov Switching models.* Springer Series in Statistics. New York: Springer.

Guédon Y, Caraglio Y, Heuret P, Lebarbier E, Meredieu C. 2007. Analyzing growth components in trees. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* 248(3): 418-447.

Henry HAL, Aarssen LW. 2001. Inter- and intraspecific relationships between shade tolerance and shade avoidance in temperate trees. *Oikos* **93**: 477-487.

Holmgren M. 2000. Combined effects of shade and drought on tulip poplar seedlings: trade-off in tolerance or facilitation? *Oikos* **90**: 67-78.

Kobe RK, Hogarth LJ. 2007. Evaluation of irradiance metrics with respect to predicting sapling growth. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* **37**: 1203-1213.

Kulkarni VG. 1995. Modeling and Analysis of Stochastic Systems. London: Chapman & Hall.

Lacointe A, Kajji A, Daudet FA, Archer P, Frossard JS. 1995. Seasonal-Variation of Photosynthetic Carbon Flow-Rate into Young Walnut and Its Partitioning among the Plant Organs and Functions. *Journal of Plant Physiology* **146**: 222-230.

Mediavilla S, Escudero A. 2004. Stomatal responses to drought of mature trees and seedlings of two co-occurring Mediterranean oaks. *Forest Ecology and Management* **187**: 281-294.

Miner B, Sultan S, Morgan S, Padilla D, Relyea R. 2005. Ecological consequences of phenotypic plasticity. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* 20: 685-692.

Mori AS, Mizumachi E, Sprugel DG. 2008. Morphological acclimation to understory environments in *Abies amabilis*, a shade- and snow-tolerant conifer species of the Cascade Mountains, Washington, USA. *Tree Physiology* 28: 815-824.

Niinemets U. 1999. Components of leaf dry mass per area - thickness and density - alter leaf photosynthetic capacity in reverse directions in woody plants. *New Phytologist* **144**: 35-47.

Pinno BD, Lieffers VJ, Stadt KJ. 2001. Measuring and modelling the crown and light transmission characteristics of juvenile aspen. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* **31**: 1930-1939.

Pradal C, Dufour-Kowalski S, Boudon F, Fournier C, Godin C. 2008. OpenAlea: A visual programming and component-based software platform for plant modeling. *Functional Plant Biology* **35**(9-10): 751-760.

Ripetti V, Escoute J, Verdeil JL, Costes E. 2008. Shaping the shoot: the relative contribution of cell number and cell shape to variations in internode length between parent and hybrid apple trees. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **59**: 1399-1407.

Sabatier S, Baradat P, Barthélémy D. 2003a. Intra- and interspecific variations of polycyclism in young trees of *Cedrus atlantica* (Endl.) Manetti ex. Carriere and *Cedrus libani* A. Rich (Pinaceae). *Annals of Forest Science* **60**: 19-29.

Sabatier S, Barthélémy D. 2001. Bud structure in relation to shoot morphology and position on the vegetative annual shoots of *Juglans regia* L. (Juglandaceae). *Annals of Botany* **87**(1): 117-123.

Sabatier S, Barthélémy D, Ducousso I. 2003b. Periods of organogenesis in mono- and bicyclic annual shoots of *Juglans regia* L. (Juglandaceae). *Annals of Botany* **92**: 231-238.

Sack L. 2004. Responses of temperate woody seedlings to shade and drought: do trade-offs limit potential niche differentiation? *Oikos* **107**: 110-127.

Sánchez-Gómez D, Zavala MA, Van Schalkwijk DB, Urbieta IR, Valladares F. 2008. Rank reversals in tree growth along tree size, competition and climatic gradients for four forest canopy dominant species in Central Spain. *Annals of Forest Science* 65: -.

Segura V, Cilas C, Costes E. 2008. Dissecting apple tree architecture into genetic, ontogenetic and environmental effects: mixed linear modelling of repeated spatial and temporal measures. *New Phytologist* **178**: 302-314.

Taugourdeau O, Sabatier S. 2010. Limited plasticity of shoot preformation in response to light by understorey saplings of common walnut (*Juglans regia*). AoB PLANTS **2010**: plq022, doi:10.1093/aobpla/plq022.

Valladares F, Gianoli E, Gomez JM. 2007. Ecological limits to plant phenotypic plasticity. *New Phytologist* **176**: 749-763.

Verbeke G, Molenberghs G. 2000. Linear mixed models for longitudinal data. Springer Series in Statistics. New York: Springer.

Wright EF, Canham CD, Coates KD. 2000. Effects of suppression and release on sapling growth for 11 tree species of northern, interior British Columbia. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* 30: 1571-1580.

Yagi, T. 2009. Ontogenetic strategy shift in sapling architecture of *Fagus crenata* in the dense understorey vegetation of canopy gaps created by selective cutting. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research* **39**(6): 1186-1196.

1 Appendix

- 2 Let $\{S_t\}$ be a discrete-time Markovian model with finite-state space $\{1,...,J\}$; see Kulkarni
- 3 (1995) for a general reference about Markov and semi-Markov models.

5 Markov chains

4

6

14

15

16

18

19

20

21

7 A *J*-state Markov chain $\{S_t\}$ is defined by the following parameters:

- 8 initial probabilities $\pi_j = P(S_1 = j)$ with $\sum_j \pi_j = 1$;
- 9 transition probabilities $p_{ij} = P(S_t = j \mid S_{t-1} = i)$ with $\sum_{i} p_{ij} = 1$.
- 10 The implicit occupancy (or sojourn time) distribution of a nonabsorbing state j is the "1-
- shifted" geometric distribution with parameter $1 p_{ij}$

12
$$d_{i}(u) = (1 - p_{ii}) p_{ii}^{u-1}, \qquad u = 1, 2, ...$$

13 This is the unique discrete memoryless distribution.

Semi-Markov chains

17 A useful generalization of Markov chains lies in the class of semi-Markov chains, in which the

process moves out of a given state according to an embedded Markov chain with self-transition

probability in nonabsorbing states $\tilde{p}_{jj} = 0$ and where the time spent in a given nonabsorbing

state is modeled by an explicit occupancy distribution.

22 A *J*-state semi-Markov chain $\{S_t\}$ is defined by the following parameters:

23 - initial probabilities $\pi_j = P(S_1 = j)$ with $\sum_j \pi_j = 1$;

1 - transition probabilities

5

10

16

- 2 nonabsorbing state i: for each $j \neq i$, $\widetilde{p}_{ij} = P(S_t = j \mid S_t \neq i, S_{t-1} = i)$ with
- $\sum_{i\neq i} \tilde{p}_{ij} = 1 \text{ and } \tilde{p}_{ii} = 0 \text{ by convention,}$
- 4 absorbing state i: $p_{ii} = P(S_t = i \mid S_{t-1} = i) = 1$ and for each $j \neq i$, $p_{ij} = 0$.
- 6 An explicit occupancy distribution is attached to each nonabsorbing state:

7
$$d_{j}(u) = P(S_{t+u+1} \neq j, S_{t+u-v} = j, v = 0, ..., u-2 \mid S_{t+1} = j, S_{t} \neq j), \quad u = 1, 2, ...$$

- 8 Since t = 1 is assumed to correspond to a state entering, the following relation is verified
- 9 $P(S_{t+1} \neq j, S_{t-v} = j, v = 0, ..., t-1) = d_j(t)\pi_j.$
- We define as possible parametric state occupancy distributions negative binomial distributions
- with an additional shift parameter d ($d \ge 1$) which defines the minimum sojourn time in a given
- state. The negative binomial distribution with parameters d, r and p, NB(d, r, p), where r is a
- 14 real number (r > 0) and 0 , is defined by

15
$$d_{j}(u) = {u-d+r-1 \choose r-1} p^{r} q^{u-d}, \qquad u = d, d+1, \dots$$

- 17 A Markov chain can be reparameterized as a semi-Markov chain such that for each
- nonabsorbing state i, $\tilde{p}_{ij} = p_{ij}/(1-p_{ii})$ for $j = 1,...,J, j \neq i$ and the associated explicit
- occupancy distribution is the "1-shifted" geometric distribution NB(1, 1, $1-p_{ii}$).

Hidden Markov chains

A hidden Markov chain can be viewed as a pair of stochastic processes $\{S_t, Y_t\}$ where the "output" process $\{Y_t\}$ is related to the "state" process $\{S_t\}$, which is a finite-state Markov chain, by a probabilistic function or mapping denoted by f (hence $Y_t = f(S_t)$). Since the mapping f is such that a given output may be observed in different states, the state process $\{S_t\}$ is not observable directly but only indirectly through the output process $\{Y_t\}$. This output process $\{Y_t\}$ is related to the Markov chain $\{S_t\}$ by the observation (or emission) probabilities $b_j(y) = P(Y_t = y \mid S_t = j)$ with $\int b_j(y)dy = 1$ in the case of a continuous output process. The definition of observation probabilities expresses the assumption that the output process at time t

Markov switching linear mixed models

depends only on the underlying Markov chain at time t.

Let $Y_{a,t}$ be the observed variable and let $S_{a,t}$ be the non-observable state for individual a ($a=1,\ldots,N$), at time t ($t=1,\ldots,T_a$). The output process $\{Y_{a,t}\}$ of the Markov switching linear mixed model for individual a is related to the state process $\{S_{a,t}\}$, which is a finite-state Markov chain, by a linear mixed model (a linear mixed model can be viewed as an extension of a classical linear model where random effects are added to fixed effects); see Verbeke and Molenberghs (2000). It assumes that the vector of repeated measurements for each individual follows, in each state, a linear regression model where some of the regression parameters are population-specific (i.e. the same for all individuals), whereas other parameters are individual-specific. In our case, the individual status (compared with the average individual) is assumed to be different in each state:

Given state
$$S_{a,t} = s_{a,t}$$
,
$$Y_{a,t} = X_{a,t} \beta_{s_{a,t}} + \tau_{s_{a,t}} \xi_{a,s_{a,t}} + \varepsilon_{a,t}$$
,
$$\xi_{a,s_{a,t}} \sim N(0,1), \qquad \qquad \varepsilon_{a,t} \mid S_{a,t} = s_{a,t} \sim N(0,\sigma_{s_{a,t}}^2).$$

2 The Gaussian observation probabilities are defined as follows:

$$b_{j}(y_{a,t}) = P(Y_{a,t} = y_{a,t} | S_{a,t} = j, \xi_{a,j}) = \frac{1}{\sigma_{j}\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{(y_{a,t} - X_{a,t}\beta_{j} - \tau_{j}\xi_{a,j})^{2}}{2\sigma_{j}^{2}}\right\}.$$

- 4 In this definition, $X_{a,t}$ is the Q-dimensional row vector of explanatory variables for individual
- 5 a at time t. Given the state $S_{a,t} = S_{a,t}$, $\beta_{S_{a,t}}$ is the Q-dimensional fixed effect parameter vector,
- 6 $\xi_{a,s_{a,t}}$ is the individual a random effect, $\tau_{s_{a,t}}$ is the standard deviation for the random effect and
- $\sigma_{s_{a,t}}^2$ is the residual variance. The individuals are assumed to be independent. For convenience,
- 8 random effects are assumed to follow the standard Gaussian distribution. The random effects
- 9 for an individual a are assumed to be mutually independent ($cov(\xi_{a,i}, \xi_{a,j}) = 0; i \neq j$).
- 10 Observations in different states for an individual a are assumed to be conditionally independent
- 11 given states (for $t \neq t'$, $cov(Y_{a,t}, Y_{a,t'} | S_{a,1}^{T_a} = S_{a,1}^{T_a}) = 0$ if $S_{a,t} \neq S_{a,t'}$ and
- $12 \quad \text{cov}(Y_{a,t},Y_{a,t},\mid S_{a,1}^{T_a}=s_{a,1}^{T_a}) = \tau_{s_{a,t}}^2 \quad \text{if} \quad s_{a,t}=s_{a,t}, \quad \text{where} \quad S_{a,1}^{T_a}=(S_{a,1},S_{a,2},\ldots,S_{a,T_a}) \quad \text{denotes} \quad \text{the} \quad T_a=s_{a,t}, \quad \text{where} \quad S_{a,t}^{T_a}=(S_{a,1},S_{a,2},\ldots,S_{a,T_a}) \quad \text{denotes} \quad \text{the} \quad T_a=s_{a,t}, \quad \text{where} \quad S_{a,t}^{T_a}=(S_{a,1},S_{a,2},\ldots,S_{a,T_a}) \quad \text{denotes} \quad \text{the} \quad T_a=s_{a,t}, \quad \text{the substitute}$
- dimensional vector of non-observable states for individual a).

Semi-Markov switching linear mixed models

14

15

16

18

20

17 In the same manner as for a Markov switching linear mixed model, a semi-Markov switching

linear mixed model can be defined, the only difference being the replacement of the underlying

19 Markov chain by an underlying semi-Markov chain.

		state 1	state 2	log-likelihood
	SMS-LM	NB(1, 1.56, 0.16)	NB(1, 1.17, 0.11)	-2241.86
N. 1		9.2, 7.15	10.27, 9.09	
No. leaves	MS-LM	NB(1, 1, 0.1)	NB(1, 1, 0.09),	-2242.7
		9.62, 9.1	11, 10.47	
	SMS-LM	NB(1, 1.91, 0.13)	NB(1, 1.3, 0.16)	-3913.06
Annual shoot		13.63, 9.81	7.83, 6.54	
length	MS-LM	NB(1, 1, 0.07)	NB(1, 1, 0.12)	-3915.95
		15.19, 14.67	8.19, 7.67	

Table 1. "Number of leaves" and "annual shoot length" models: Estimated occupancy distributions (parameters, mean and standard deviation in years) for states 1 and 2 for the three-state semi-Markov switching linear model (SMS-LM) and Markov switching linear model (MS-LM).

	p_{11}, λ_1	p_{22}, λ_2	$\eta_{\scriptscriptstyle 3}$
No. leaves	0.81, 5.34	0.94, 15.59	19.66
Annual shoot length	0.91, 10.64	0.9, 9.72	16.9

Table 2. Markov switching linear mixed models: self-transition probabilities p_{ii} and corresponding mean time λ_i spent in the transient states 1 and 2 (in years), and mean time up to the first occurrence of state 3 η_3 (in years) for the "number of leaves" and the "annual shoot length" models. It should be noted that $\eta_3 < \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ since a certain proportion of the trees started directly in state 2 (with $\pi_2 = 0.21$ for the "number of leaves" model and $\pi_2 = 0.32$ for the "annual shoot length" model).

	-		state	
		1	2	3
regression	intercept β_{j1}	3.36	4.47	6.21
parameters	(s.e.)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.12)
	temperature parameter β_{i2} (°C ⁻¹)	0.08	0.17	0.48
	(s.e.)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.09)
	average temperature effect			
	$\beta_{j2} \times \text{mad}_{j}(X_{2})$	0.09	0.15	0.38
variability	random variance τ_j^2	0.41	0.52	0.29
decomposition	(s.e.)	(0.45)	(0.39)	(0.61)
	residual variance σ_i^2	0.23	0.57	0.7
	(s.e.)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.05)
	total variance Γ_j^2 proportion of inter-individual	0.64	1.09	0.99
	heterogeneity	65.08%	47.71%	29.29%
	marginal observation			
	distribution (μ_j, Γ_j)	3.36, 0.8	4.56, 1.04	6.55, 0.99

Table 3. Number of leaves per annual shoot: Estimated Markov switching linear mixed model parameters and marginal observation distributions for each state. For each observation linear mixed model the intercept, the regression parameter for the average daily maximum temperature, the average daily maximum temperature effect and the variability decomposition are given. Standard errors are given in parentheses.

	_		state	
		1	2	3
regression	intercept β_{j1} (cm)	4.01	5.86	12.11
parameters	(s.e.)	(0.06)	(0.14)	(0.74)
	temperature parameter β_{j2} (cm °C ⁻¹)	0.13	1.53	4.25
	(s.e.)	(0.05)	(0.11)	(0.6)
	average temperature effect			
	$\beta_{j2} \times \text{mad}_{j}(X_{2}) \text{ (cm)}$	0.15	1.68	2.61
	cumulative rainfall			
	parameter β_{j3} (cm mm ⁻¹)	$0.5 \ 10^{-3}$	4. 10 ⁻³	5. 10 ⁻³
	(s.e.)	$(0.2 \ 10^{-3})$	$(0.4 \ 10^{-3})$	$(1.4 \ 10^{-3})$
	average cumulative rainfall effect			
	$\beta_{j3} \times \text{mad}_{j}(X_{3})$ (cm)	0.08	0.54	0.72
variability	random variance τ_j^2	0.99	3.82	9.96
decomposition	(s.e.)	(0.51)	(0.63)	(1.71)
	residual variance σ_i^2	1.0	4.7	20.01
	J	1.3	4.7	29.01
	(s.e.)	(0.01)	(0.21)	(2.04)
	total variance Γ_j^2	2.29	8.52	38.97
	proportion of inter-individual			
	heterogeneity	43.23%	44.84%	25.56%
	marginal observation			
	distribution (μ_j, Γ_j) (cm)	4.01, 1.51	6.73, 2.92	15.28, 6.24

Table 4. Annual shoot length: Estimated Markov switching linear mixed model parameters and marginal observation distributions for each state. For each observation linear mixed model the intercept, the regression parameter for the average daily maximum temperature, the average daily maximum temperature effect, the regression parameter for cumulative rainfall, the cumulative rainfall effect and the variability decomposition are given. Standard errors are given in parentheses.

profile of state	number of leaves per annual shoot model annual shoot length model					
succession	unbranched tree	branched tree	total	unbranched tree	branched tree	total
1	25	0	25	41	0	41
$1 \rightarrow 2$	54	1	55	27	0	27
$1 \to 2 \to 3$	18	10	28	14	13	27
2	12	0	12	18	0	18
$2 \rightarrow 3$	7	11	18	16	9	25

Table 5. Number of trees with the same profile of state succession extracted from the optimal segmentations computed using the estimated Markov switching linear mixed models. A profile of state succession is defined as the series of distinct states visited along the sequence regardless the time spent in each state.

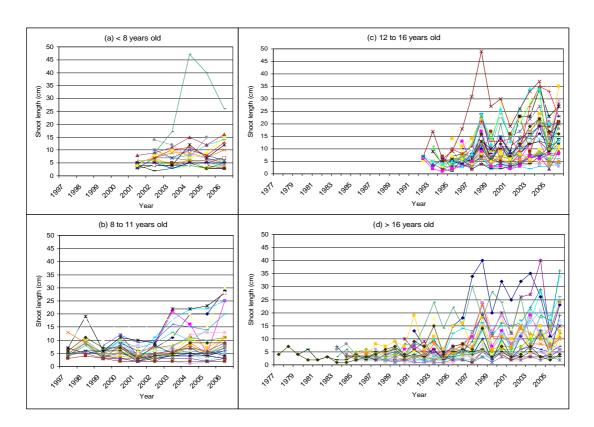


Figure 1. Length of successive annual shoots along walnut main stems (a) less than 8 years old, (b) from 8 to 11 years old, (c) from 12 to 16 years old, (d) more than 16 years old. The very first annual shoot corresponding to the germination year is not shown.

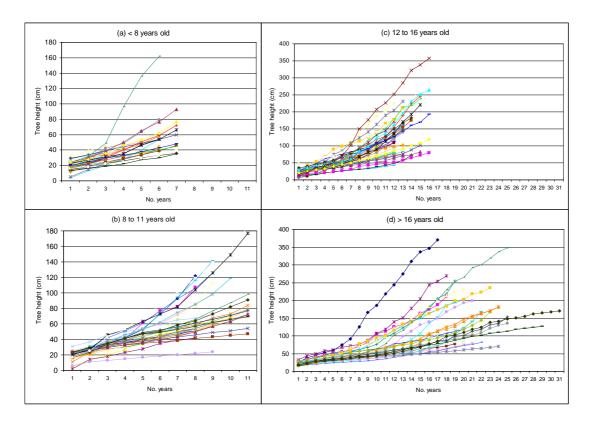


Figure 2. Walnut height (a) less than 8 years old, (b) from 8 to 11 years old, (c) form 12 to 16 years old, (d) more than 16 years old.

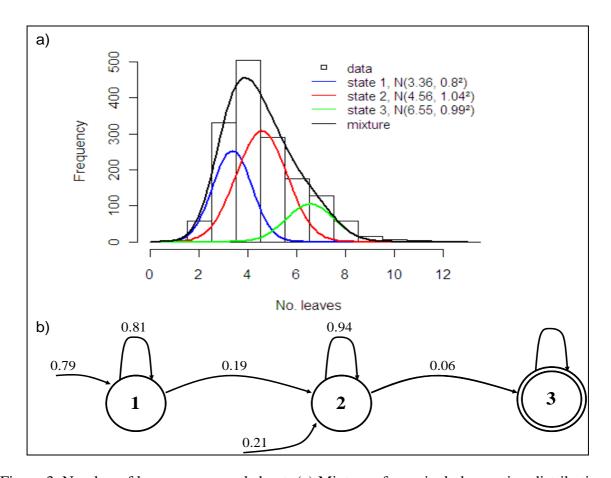


Figure 3. Number of leaves per annual shoot: (a) Mixture of marginal observation distributions. (b) Estimated underlying Markov chain of the Markov switching linear mixed model. Each state is represented by a vertex which is numbered. Vertices representing transient states are edged by a single line while the vertex representing the final absorbing state is edged by a double line. The possible transitions between states are represented by arcs and the attached probabilities are noted nearby. Arcs entering in states indicate initial states. The attached initial probabilities are noted nearby.

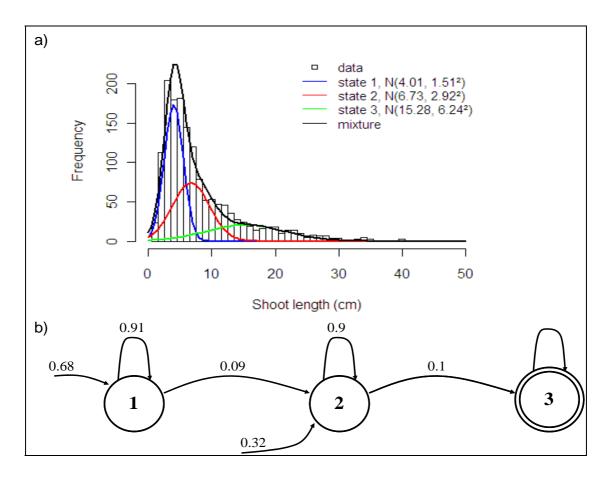


Figure 4. Annual shoot length: (a) Mixture of marginal observation distributions. (b) Estimated underlying Markov chain of the Markov switching linear mixed model. Each state is represented by a vertex which is numbered. Vertices representing transient states are edged by a single line while the vertex representing the final absorbing state is edged by a double line. The possible transitions between states are represented by arcs and the attached probabilities are noted nearby. Arcs entering in states indicate initial states. The attached initial probabilities are noted nearby.

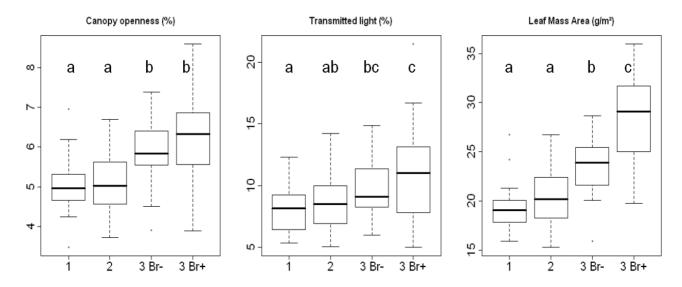


Figure 5. Relationship between light environment and, growth phase and branching status. Box plots for the percentage of canopy openness, the percentage of transmitted light and the LMA values according to growth phase and branching status of trees in 2006 (the last year considered): growth phase 1, growth phase 2, growth phase 3 for unbranched trees (Br-) and branched trees (Br+). Letters indicate homogeneous groups (Tukey test at the 5% level).

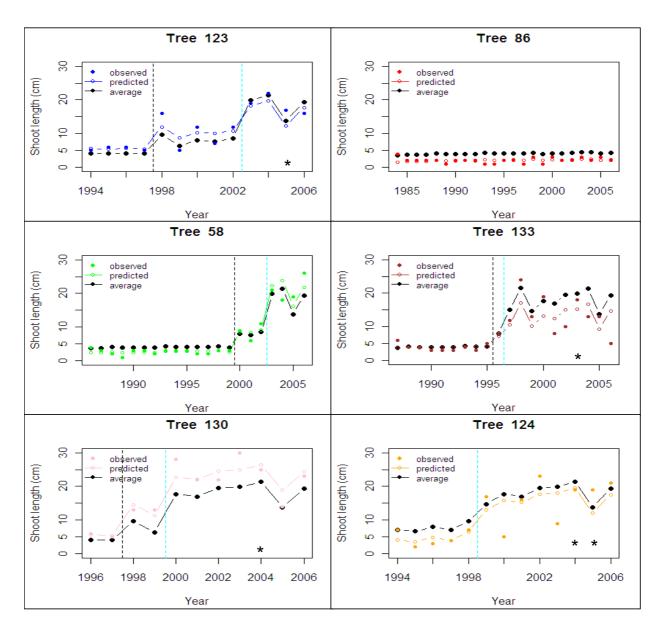


Figure 6. Annual shoot lengths of 6 selected trees: The average tree profiles are represented by black point lines, the predicted tree profiles are represented by color point lines and observed annual shoot lengths are represented by filled circles. The average and predicted tree profiles were computed for each tree on the basis of the optimal segmentation of the observed sequence computed using the estimated Markov switching linear mixed model. The asterisks correspond to years of branching. The black vertical dashed line corresponds to the transition from state 1 to state 2. The cyan vertical dashed line corresponds to the transition from state 2 to state 3.

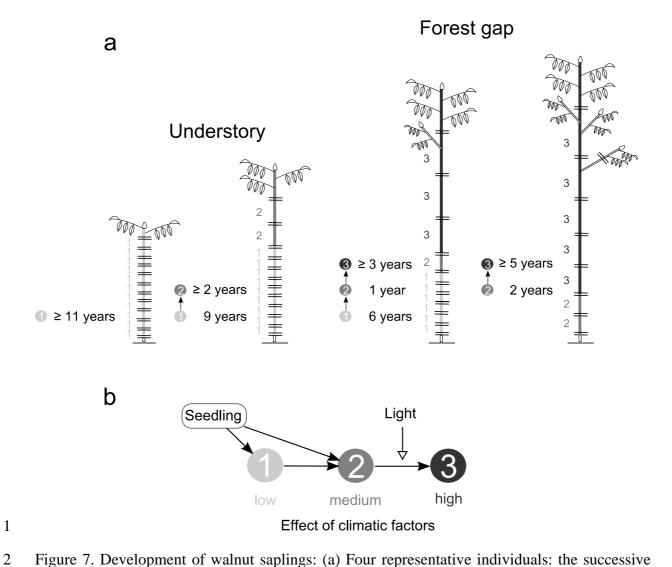


Figure 7. Development of walnut saplings: (a) Four representative individuals: the successive annual shoots along the main stem are labeled with the growth phases deduced from the optimal segmentation of the observed sequence computed using the "annual shoot length" model. The tree development trajectories are summarized nearby. (b) Effects of climatic factors and individual light environment on successive growth phases.