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1 **Title: The use of scenarios and models to evaluate the future of nature**
2 **values and ecosystem services in Mediterranean forests.**

3
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28 **Abstract**

29 Science and society are increasingly interested in forecasting the effects of global change and
30 socio-economic development on natural systems, to ensure maintenance of both ecosystems and
31 human wellbeing. The Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services has
32 identified the combination of ecological modelling and scenario forecasting as key to improving
33 our understanding of those effects, by evaluating the relationships and feedbacks between direct
34 and indirect drivers of change, biodiversity, nature benefits to people and good quality of life.

35 We reviewed the literature to evaluate the use of future scenarios and ecological models to
36 predict the condition and trends of Mediterranean forests, and the services they provide, under
37 different drivers and components of global change. Forests of the Mediterranean basin represent
38 an ideal case of a complex socio-ecological system, where impact assessments must deal with
39 multiple cultural, ecological and economic values, and complex dynamics of social change.

40 Our review shows that forecasting studies make relatively little use of modelling approaches
41 accounting for actual ecological processes and feedbacks between different socio-ecological
42 sectors; predictions are generally made on the basis of a single (mainly climate) or a few drivers
43 of change; in general, there is a bias in the set of nature and ecosystem services indicators
44 assessed; in particular, cultural services are underrepresented in the literature. We argue that
45 these shortfalls hamper our capacity to make the best use of predictive tools to inform decision-
46 making in the context of global change.

47 **Keywords:**

48 Ecological forecasting; Future Scenarios; Impact Assessment Evaluations; IPBES; Nature
49 Benefits to People; Socio-ecological systems

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Anticipating changes in biodiversity and the services that ecosystems provide to society has
52 been a key goal of the environmental research agenda (Clark et al. 2001), especially boosted
53 since the publication of the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment reports in 2005 (MEA 2005).
54 With rapidly accelerating global changes associated to human activities this task has also
55 become a key challenge for society in general (Vihervaara et al. 2010; Cardinale et al. 2012).
56 Despite the growing scientific efforts, some of the knowledge gaps identified in the MEA
57 reports still exist. For example, we still have little understanding of the interactions and
58 feedbacks between the drivers of ecosystem and biodiversity change and multiple aspects of
59 human well-being, like human health and food security (Pecl and et al 2017). Also, the models
60 used to characterize the relationships between biodiversity and ecosystem services (ES) mostly
61 rely on linear correlations and do not consider non-linear changes, thresholds and tipping points
62 in ecosystems (Ricketts et al. 2016; Lavorel et al. 2017). To address these challenges, the
63 recently established Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services
64 (IPBES) has developed a first working program that identifies the use of future scenarios and
65 modelling approaches as fundamental pillars to advance in the understanding of the
66 relationships and feedbacks between direct and indirect drivers of change, biodiversity, nature
67 benefits to people and good quality of life (IPBES 2016).

68 A scenario is a coherent, internally consistent and plausible description of a possible future state
69 of the world (Nakicenovic et al. 2000). Built upon scientific understanding of past and current
70 observed relationships between drivers and environmental trends, scenarios draw upon
71 narratives (storylines) of plausible socio-economic developments or particularly desirable future
72 pathways (visions) under specific policy options and strategies (Alcamo and Ribeiro 2001;
73 Peterson et al. 2003; O'Neill et al. 2015; Bai et al. 2016). One of the main challenges of using
74 scenarios for forecasting future impacts of societal development on ecosystems is the translation
75 of scenario narratives into quantitative model input variables (Kok et al. 2014). In this regard,
76 the rapid advances in science and observation of climate change have favored the widespread

77 incorporation of climatic variables as direct drivers in regional-scale scenarios and future
78 projections, especially in impact assessments (Moss et al. 2010). In contrast, substantial research
79 is still needed about the inclusion of other important short-term drivers of biodiversity and
80 ecosystem change such as land use (habitat modification, degradation and overexploitation),
81 invasive species and pollution (FRB 2013; Titeux et al. 2016; Sirami et al. 2017; but see for
82 example Malek et al. 2018). There are multiple issues that hamper the incorporation of those
83 drivers of change in forecasting approaches, including mismatching scales between the available
84 data and the modelled process, the short temporal coverage of data, or the actual lack of
85 quantitative data for some drivers (Hauck et al. 2015). Apart from incorporating multiple drivers
86 of global change, ecological models should, to the maximum possible extent, attempt to
87 represent the complex interdependencies within human and environmental systems (i.e. consider
88 the interactions and feedbacks between multiple economic sectors, instead of assessing the
89 impacts of single sectors in isolation; e.g. Harrison et al. 2014, 2016); this normally requires the
90 use of multiple interlinked models (model coupling or model integration) to account for either
91 the various processes operating at the ecosystem level or the factors that operate at different
92 spatial scales (Harfoot et al. 2014).

93 Systems long exposed to human activities are particularly sensitive to this imbalance in the
94 methods and approaches used to forecast nature responses to global changes. In these systems,
95 interactions between past land use changes (i.e. land use legacies) and current pressures, as well
96 as the difficulty of untangling multiple complex causation are likely to require complex
97 integrated approaches (see Figure 1).. Mediterranean forests are a good example of such
98 systems, because they represent semi natural systems subjected to a long history of use and
99 transformation (Nocentini and Coll 2013). They are biodiversity-rich, complex socio-ecological
100 systems that have been continuously adapting to use and exploitation throughout many
101 centuries, while providing important services and goods to society (Myers et al. 2000;
102 Gauquelin et al. 2016). Currently, they cover approximately 25 % of the Mediterranean region
103 (Malek and Verburg 2017). Conservation of these systems must deal with multiple cultural,

104 ecological and economic values, and complex dynamics of social change are likely to be
105 exacerbated by global change (IPCC 2014; Doblas-Miranda et al. 2015).

106 In this study, we assess to which extent, the integration of drivers described in Figure 1 is being
107 achieved in forecasting exercises of Mediterranean forest systems. These represent a prime case
108 study to assess the state of the art and the remaining gaps in the use of models and scenarios to
109 investigate the effects of global change on biodiversity and ecosystem functioning. We review
110 the models used for evaluation of environmental impacts in forest systems in the Mediterranean
111 basin to answer the following questions: (1) What are the modelling approaches most
112 commonly used (e.g. are correlative approaches being superseded by more integrative ones)? (2)
113 How are specific drivers being included in modelled scenarios (e.g. are models considering
114 multiple drivers and scales)? (3) How holistic is our knowledge about the effects of global
115 change on nature and people (e.g., are we focusing on a narrow range of indicators)? On the
116 basis of our review, we highlight outstanding knowledge gaps and biases, identify priority areas
117 for research in ecological forecasting and discuss a potential way forward.

118

119 **2. Materials and methods**

120 In June 2016, we conducted a systematic review of studies assessing future changes in forest
121 ecosystems. We searched the Web of Science database for peer-reviewed articles published
122 between 1990 and 2016 that used modelling or simulation approaches to predict future
123 values/change of nature indicators (e.g. diversity values, ecosystem functions ,etc.) or ES
124 indicators linked to Mediterranean forests. The list of data bases, keywords and filters used for
125 the literature selection is detailed in Table 1. This search yielded 2424 articles. We reviewed the
126 abstracts to remove duplicates and articles outside the scope of this study (2029 articles). These
127 included: articles focusing on the Mediterranean biome but outside the Mediterranean basin
128 (e.g. California, Australia); articles that used models to make inference about ecological
129 processes (e.g. how does drought affect forest growth?) but did not explicitly use scenarios to
130 make future predictions of the indicator; experimental studies (e.g. the study sets vegetation
131 plots where a species X is subjected to increases of 1, 2 and 3 degrees of temperature or to
132 drought stress, to evaluate the effect of increasing temperatures in species growth, reproduction,
133 etc.); studies focused on exotic species located in Mediterranean countries (e.g. Eucalyptus spp.)
134 and articles focusing on non-Mediterranean forests within any of the evaluated countries (on the
135 basis of the dominant species and the geographic location of the study area; e.g. beech forests in
136 Normandy). After reading the full-texts of the remaining 395 articles, we excluded an additional
137 232 studies following the same criteria listed above, leading to a final set of 163 articles that
138 were retained for analysis (Appendix S1).

139 For each article we extracted information about the geographic location of the study area, the
140 modelling approach, the scenarios used and their origin, the drivers of change considered in
141 each scenario and the nature and ES indicators evaluated. We generated a unique record for
142 each scenario-indicator combination within each of the articles read. This led to a total of 2075
143 entries in the database. We calculated summary statistics (frequencies in our database) regarding
144 the geographic coverage (to assess spatial biases), the scenarios, drivers and spatio-temporal
145 scales analyzed in each study (to assess the prevalence of studies integrating drivers at different

146 spatio-temporal scales), the indicators evaluated (to assess the incidence of each indicator type
147 and the prevalence of single- vs multi-indicator evaluations) and the type of models used (to
148 assess the level of use of process-based or integrated approaches vs more simplistic correlative
149 ones). Table 2 provides a complete list of the information extracted, together with the criteria
150 used for classification.

151 **3. Results**

152 *3.1. Geographic coverage*

153 The majority of articles selected in our review (133 articles; 82 %) corresponded to national,
154 sub-national or local studies carried out within the North-Western countries of the
155 Mediterranean basin (Portugal, France, Italy and Spain; Figure 2). In addition, our review
156 included twelve global or European-wide studies with detailed results for at least one country
157 within the Mediterranean zone, 14 regional studies (focused on two or more countries of the
158 Mediterranean basin), one study with detailed results for the Afro-Mediterranean domain and
159 three studies based on simulated Mediterranean-type landscapes (Appendix S2).

160 *3.2. Scenarios, drivers & scales*

161 The majority of studies used two or more scenarios when making future predictions of nature
162 and ES indicators (74.2%), while only 25.8% of studies used a single scenario (93 % of these
163 are also based on a single driver only, mostly a climatic driver). Fifty-six percent of the
164 scenarios were based on a single-driver only, with climate the driver most frequently used
165 (31.9% of the scenarios were based on climate only; Figure 3a). The second dominant driver
166 was management (e.g. different thinning regimes, levels of biomass extraction, etc.), with 13 %
167 of the scenarios, followed by fire (6.2%) and land-use/land-cover change (LULCC; 4.2%). Less
168 than 1% of the single-driver scenarios used drivers other than the previously mentioned (e.g.
169 invasive species). In total, 62.8% percent of scenarios used climate as a driver (either as solo-
170 driver or in combination with other drivers), whereas the other dominant drivers found (fire,
171 LULCC and management) were considered in less than 30 % of the scenarios. When multi-

172 driver scenario combinations were used (Figure 3b), fire was most often combined with either
173 climate and/or LULCC, whereas LULCC was most often combined with climate and/or fire,
174 and management was mostly combined with climate and, to a lesser extent, with fire.

175 We did not find a particular general pattern regarding the spatial extent of the study area
176 (global/EU wide, regional –Pan-Mediterranean-, national, subnational or local) and the number
177 of drivers considered in the scenarios. The exception were regional (Pan-Mediterranean)
178 studies, in which scenarios were always based on a single driver only (mostly climate). This
179 lack of a clear pattern could also be due to the imbalance in representation of scales across the
180 selected articles (Appendix S2). However, there were differences in the types of drivers used:
181 whereas global/EU wide studies mostly focused on climate and land use change as main drivers,
182 sub-national and local scale studies mainly incorporated fire and management/disturbance.
183 Moreover, studies carried out at large scales (national, regional or global) generally made
184 predictions based on available scenarios (e.g. IPCC), whereas user-made scenarios were more
185 common at sub-national or local scales.

186 *3.3. Types of indicators and modelling approaches*

187 We found an unequal use of ES and nature indicators within the set of selected articles: 57 % of
188 the studies evaluated ES indicators only, 40 % evaluated nature indicators-only, whereas the
189 remaining 3% evaluated both types of indicators simultaneously (Figures 4a, 5). We did not
190 observe a clearly dominant use of a specific modelling approach within each indicator-type
191 group (Figure 4a), whereas the few studies that evaluated both nature and ES indicators (3% of
192 the total) used predominantly process-based or integrated approaches.

193 The studies assessing ES indicators included two or more drivers of change and evaluated two
194 or more indicators more frequently than those evaluating nature indicators (Figure 4b). Also,
195 studies based on process-based or integrated approaches accounted for two or more drivers of
196 change with higher frequency than studies based on correlative/empirical approaches.

197 Sixty percent of the studies assessing ES indicators focused on regulation & maintenance
198 services, almost evenly split between climate change regulation and the maintenance of

199 physical, chemical and biological conditions (Figure 5). Almost all the remaining ES studies
200 (38%) focused on provisioning services, mostly on indicators of plant materials for direct use
201 and processing (e.g. timber, 82.6%; Figure 5). Cultural services, integrative ES indicators and
202 other regulating services were only marginally represented (Figure 4). Fire risk, understood here
203 as a regulating & maintenance service, was evaluated in 25 articles (approx. 15% of the total
204 selected articles). All ES indicators found referred to the supply capacity of forest to provide
205 services and none to the demand side.

206 Almost 80% of the nature indicators evaluated corresponded to measures of species/population
207 trends, such as changes in species abundance, geographical range, etc; 10% focused on
208 measures of compositional intactness such as forest cover extent, changes in landscape
209 configuration, etc; whereas only a few studies focused on measures of ecosystem functioning
210 (e.g. forest traits, regeneration capacity) or extinction risk (e.g. allele diversity, viability of
211 populations).

212

213 **4. Discussion**

214 Future conservation of biodiversity and of our natural capital will require an integrative, broad
215 evaluation of all the challenges that nature will face under the current context of societal and
216 environmental change. Our review shows that, despite the increasing use of scenarios and
217 models as tools to explore those changes (Appendix S3), the scientific community is still
218 focusing efforts on a fraction of the overall challenges the future might bring to
219 ecosystems/nature. In our results, this is reflected in the still relatively low proportion of studies
220 using process-based or integrated modelling approaches (53.7%) or considering the influence in
221 the systems of multiple-drivers operating at different spatio-temporal scales (44%), as well as
222 the very low representation of studies assessing nature and ES indicators simultaneously (3%).

223

224 *4.1. Geographic coverage*

225 We found a strong geographic bias in the use of models and scenarios in Mediterranean forestry
226 research, with few studies integrating these concepts being developed in southern countries
227 (Figure 2). This may stem in part from economic differences between countries of the two sides
228 of the Mediterranean, which reflect differences in their educational systems (i.e. Southern
229 Mediterranean countries present a much lower ratio of post-graduate vs. bachelor students in
230 forestry than northern ones) and national research budgets (FAO and Plan Bleu 2013; Appendix
231 S4). It might also reflect the importance (in terms of total coverage) of forest systems in each
232 country (Appendix S4). This unequal distribution of information across the North-South, West-
233 East axes of the Mediterranean makes it difficult for the scientific community to make robust
234 predictions at the level of the whole Mediterranean basin, especially for its southern part where
235 impacts may be expected to be large and response capacity low.

236 *4.2. Scenarios and drivers*

237 The literature reviewed showed a strong bias towards the impacts of climate change on different
238 aspects of Mediterranean forest systems, especially in studies addressing questions at broad
239 (national to global) scales (as recently observed in other studies; IPBES 2016; Kok et al. 2017;
240 Rosa et al. 2017). This bias might be explained by the fast development and public availability of
241 global circulation models and climate scenarios (Moss et al. 2010) and the widespread use of
242 IPCC climate predictions to forecast biodiversity patterns (Titeux et al. 2016; Sirami et al. 2017),
243 and by the fact that the Mediterranean basin has been identified as a regional climate change
244 hotspot (EEA 2005; Diffenbaugh and Giorgi 2012; Stocker et al. 2013). We note that, in the
245 literature selected, climate change impacts were always assessed through the change in long-term
246 average climate conditions, mainly annual mean temperature and total rainfall. However, rather
247 than changes in mean conditions, one of the main climate threats to Mediterranean ecosystems is
248 the increase in the frequency and duration of extreme weather events (length of droughts,
249 heatwaves, short periods of intensive rainfall, etc.; Stocker et al. 2013). Extreme conditions can
250 play an important role altering the structure and function of Mediterranean forests in the short term,
251 compromising the services they provide (Peñuelas et al. 2017). For example, prolonged droughts

252 can induce diebacks and favor a shift in species composition or the establishment of invasive
253 species (Resco De Dios et al. 2007), while the co-occurrence of heat waves and drought conditions
254 can cause large wildfires with devastating consequences for people and the environment (Founda
255 and Giannakopoulos 2009; Fernandes et al. 2016; Ruffault et al. 2018). Ignoring those extreme-
256 weather threats might lead to misleading predictions about the future condition and trends of
257 species and ecosystems (Zimmermann et al. 2009; Morán-Ordóñez et al. 2017), and therefore, of
258 their benefits on human-wellbeing.

259 There is still little integration of key drivers of change other than climate in Mediterranean
260 systems (Figure 1), such as fire and LULCC (Keeley et al. 2012), which impact ecosystems locally
261 in the short- and mid-term and might have irreversible consequences in ecosystem health before
262 the worst-case climate change scenario (in terms of temperature increase) could be realized. For
263 example, although forest fires are a growing environmental and societal issue in Mediterranean
264 systems, integration – in scenarios and models – of fire as a driving force with other mid- and
265 long-term drivers such as climate was only found in a few studies focused on local to sub-National
266 scales or simulated landscapes (Pausas 2006; Pausas and Lloret 2007; Brotons et al. 2013;
267 Pacheco et al. 2015; Gil-Tena et al. 2016; Górriz-Mifsud et al. 2016). Local and sub-national
268 scales are ideal for an integrated analysis of processes operating at multiple scales (e.g. local fires
269 and climate), which in turn is crucial to understand the resilience of ecosystems under global
270 change conditions and thus guide sustainable development policies (Seidl et al. 2011). For this
271 reason, local scales have been proposed as the starting point for the generation of a new set of
272 nature and ES scenarios to be developed by the IPBES (Kok et al. 2017). Developing authoritative,
273 integrated future scenarios of forests and associated land use changes and fire risks is becoming
274 an urgent need in regions subjected to multiple pressures such as the Mediterranean.

275

276 Moreover, since driving forces of environmental problems can take such a wide range of different
277 directions, it is good practice (if possible) to develop and test multiple scenarios that reflect
278 different plausible trends, rather than testing a single scenario only as observed in 25.8% of the
279 selected articles (Alcamo and Ribeiro 2001). Testing several scenarios improves our

280 understanding of how different sources of uncertainty might impact our model/target system
281 (Peterson et al. 2003; Mahmoud et al. 2009). This is particularly relevant for the case of
282 *exploratory* or *prospective* approaches (all approaches found in our selected literature), that
283 investigate upcoming changes that might significantly vary from past trends (McCarthy et al.
284 2011; Rieb et al. 2017).

285

286 4.3. Models

287 Under the current context environmental change, models integrating social, economic and
288 environmental drivers that determine current and future states of the system are more likely to
289 be applicable and policy-relevant (Seidl et al. 2011; IPBES 2016). Integration of various drivers
290 at multiple spatio-temporal scales (Figure 1) might generally require process-based/mechanistic
291 or integrated model approaches (Kelly et al. 2013; Harfoot et al. 2014) rather than
292 correlative/empirical ones. Both correlative and process-based/integrated approaches were
293 equally represented in our review, suggesting there is still little integration of drivers across
294 scales in the approaches currently used to evaluate the future of Mediterranean forests.

295 Process-based approaches have clear advantages over correlative approaches such as their
296 ability to extrapolate beyond known conditions, which makes them particularly useful for
297 making predictions under global change conditions (Cuddington et al. 2013). Process-based and
298 integrated models also allow better exploration of interactions, feedbacks and trade-offs
299 between different components of the modelled systems (e.g. trade-offs between conservation of
300 natural values and production of provisioning services; Korzukhin et al. 1996), which are key
301 for making well-informed decision making. However, the use of advanced integrative modelling
302 approaches that explicitly combine multiple model types with an unique framework over
303 different spatial scales is still rare (but see some examples at EU and global scales: e.g. Böttcher
304 et al. 2012; Kraxner et al. 2013). This is due to the inherent higher complexity of the former:
305 generally, these are parameter- and data-intensive models, that require disciplinary expertise and
306 prolonged time series of data for calibration and validation (Seidl et al. 2011; Harfoot et al.
307 2014; Rieb et al. 2017). Wider use of these complex approaches would require stronger

308 collaborations between different disciplines (from social sciences to climatology, agriculture
309 and forestry) and actors (scientist, policy-makers, managers), and at different scales (from plant
310 physiologists to macro-ecologists).
311 Nevertheless, the selection of modelling framework (decisions regarding the choice of model
312 type, the complexity allowed, the spatio-temporal scales included, variables/drivers considered,
313 etc.) should be ultimately determined by the ecological question addressed and the decision-
314 context (with modelling strategies changing across the policy cycle; IPBES 2016). In most cases,
315 this model selection will be limited by knowledge and data availability. As all models have
316 strengths and weaknesses, a minimum requirement is that they are validated and uncertainly is
317 evaluated (e.g. sensitivity analysis, multi-model ensembles) and communicated.

318

319 *4.4. Indicators*

320 Most of the studies reviewed evaluated regulation and provisioning services. In the particular
321 case of forests in the Mediterranean basin, this observed trend might respond to its recognized
322 multifunctional character (Palahi et al. 2008): on the one hand, forests are (and have
323 traditionally been) an important source of products for consumption and trade such as timber,
324 fuelwood, truffles, pine nuts and cork for Mediterranean societies (FAO and Plan Bleu 2013).
325 This might explain the interest in knowing what the future provision of these products will be in
326 the coming decades. On the other hand, the regulation functions and services that Mediterranean
327 forest fulfill have direct influence in the health of the system itself (through the maintenance of
328 physical, chemical and/or biological conditions), as well as in the wellbeing and socio-economic
329 development of Mediterranean societies (e.g. soil erosion is one of the main environmental
330 problems in European Mediterranean agro-forestry systems; García-Ruiz 2010). One of the
331 regulating services most commonly evaluated in the selected literature was fire and fire risk, a
332 disturbance of increasing concern in fire-prone ecosystems (e.g. Mediterranean ecosystems) that
333 interferes with the continuous and sustainable provisioning of other ES (e.g. carbon storage;
334 Seidl et al. 2014). The role of Mediterranean forests in contributing to global change mitigation
335 through carbon sequestration and storage is also increasingly evaluated, especially the

336 dependence of this service on forest management practices (Koniak et al. 2011; Pardos et al.
337 2015; e.g. grazing, rotation lengths, thinning, fire management; Bottalico et al. 2016).
338

339 We only found one study making future predictions of cultural services (density of geophytes
340 highly values by the public because of their flowering displays; Koniak et al. 2011). None other
341 studies evaluating biodiversity indicators in our review made an explicit connection with their
342 potential cultural values. The small representation of studies evaluating the future of cultural
343 services is a general pattern observed in other ES impact evaluations, with independence of the
344 ecosystem/thematic scope (Martinez-Harms et al. 2015; Boerema et al. 2016). This might be
345 due to the fact that the change of social values over time is very hard to quantify, model and
346 forecast (cultural services are most commonly evaluated through proxies Egoh et al. 2012;
347 IPBES 2016), and it is generally easier to make predictions of indicators that depend on already
348 observed environmental relationships (i.e. mathematical equations) such as forest growth and
349 timber production. Given the difficulty of predicting social values and individual choices, future
350 evaluations of cultural services might need to be indirectly inferred from changes in nature-
351 based indicators. For example, the leisure use of Mediterranean pine forests (for walking,
352 mountain biking, hunting, etc.) will probably be negatively affected by the increasing incidence
353 of pest outbreaks of the processionary pine moth (*Thaumetopoea pityocampa*) favored by
354 warmer winters (Battisti et al. 2005), as this species is responsible of strong allergic reactions in
355 humans (Battisti et al. 2017). Although it is difficult to predict when, where and how these
356 allergic symptoms will occur and how this will impact the leisure value of forest, it is possible
357 to predict the vulnerability of forest to pest outbreaks given some knowledge about the ecology
358 of the moth species and its relationship with environmental conditions, and indirectly infer
359 where there could be potential conflicts with humans (e.g. peri-urban parks, national parks and
360 other popular recreational areas). Therefore, the future prediction of cultural services will
361 require of a better connection between nature/biodiversity and ecosystem services models and
362 indicators, currently poorly linked (IPBES 2016).
363

364 Regarding nature indicators, the strong bias observed towards the evaluation of
365 species/populations distribution patterns might respond to the fast development of species
366 distribution and population modelling techniques specially in climate assessments in the last two
367 decades (Brotons 2014). Our results show that there is still considerable scope for research on
368 other types of indicators that might be more informative about ecosystem function and
369 dynamics (e.g. genetic composition, traits diversity; Pereira et al. 2013) and therefore, of the
370 vulnerability of ecosystems to global change and their capacity to adapt and continue providing
371 multiple ES. Despite the increasing debate around the link between nature (biodiversity)
372 indicators and the capacity of ecosystems to provide services (Cardinale et al. 2012; Gamfeldt et
373 al. 2013; Ricketts et al. 2016), the presence of studies evaluating such relationship in the
374 selected literature was negligible (as also found at the IPBES assessment on models and
375 scenarios; IPBES 2016). This hampers our capacity to identify relationships between ecosystem
376 thresholds and tipping points and their consequences for human well-being. Moreover, our
377 review shows that the proportion of studies evaluating multiple indicators simultaneously is
378 very low, making it difficult to assess trade-offs between biodiversity and ES indicators or
379 among ES types (see also Boerema et al. 2016).

380

381 **5. Conclusions**

382 Our literature review highlights several broad gaps in the way we conduct assessments of future
383 changes in nature and ES provision in Mediterranean forests. There are several potential
384 avenues to achieve higher levels of integration and ecological realism when making future
385 predictions of the state and dynamics of Mediterranean ecosystems under global change
386 scenarios (also applicable to other systems). In particular, future nature and ES research should
387 work on: (i) integrating multiple processes and driving forces operating at different spatio-
388 temporal scales; (ii) considering the uncertainty around how these drivers will change in the
389 future (by comparison of multiple scenarios), as well as any potential feedbacks between them;
390 (iii) advancing on integrative approaches that consider the interdependencies between socio-
391 ecological systems (different economic sectors) and nature systems (iv) developing models able

392 to assess a wider set of nature and ES indicators, so that trade-offs between them could be
393 evaluated. There is no doubt of the important role that ecological models and scenarios play in
394 achieving these goals. Although we focused our review on Mediterranean forest systems, our
395 results may be of wider implication for other, similar regions and systems, keeping in mind that
396 biases and constraints are likely to be larger in many regions, and not easily solved by
397 downscaling global change assessments to the region of interest.

398

399 **Authors contributions:** AMO and LB conceived the study. AMO, LB, JVRD and KO
400 performed the literature search and read the articles. AMO led the writing of the manuscript. All
401 authors contributed critically to the interpretation of the results and the writing of the
402 manuscript.

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Query	Field	Parameters	Motivation
1	Year	1990-2016	Restricts the time period of the results to the last 25 years. It captures the increasing use of scenarios in Ecology since the publication of the first IPCC assessment report in 1990 (Moss et al. 2010)
2	Topic	((model* OR project* OR predict* OR simulat*) AND future) OR (scenari* OR forecast* OR foresight* OR storyline*)	Captures modelling studies addressing predictions into the future
3	Topic	(Mediterranean OR Gibraltar OR Portugal OR Spain OR France OR Monaco OR Italy OR Malta OR Slovenia OR Croatia OR Bosnia OR Montenegro OR Albania OR Greece OR Turkey OR Cyprus OR Syria OR Lebanon OR Israel OR Palestine OR Egypt OR Libya OR Tunisia OR Algeria OR Morocco OR Iberia* OR Balkan* OR Anatolia)	Sets the geographic context: the Mediterranean basin and all the countries within it
4	Topic	(forest* OR woodland*)	Identifies studies focusing on forest or woodlands as their subject study system

618 We use the boolean operator 'AND' to combine the different queries. We refined the results
619 using "Articles" as *Document type*, 'English' as Language' and 'Forestry', 'Plant Sciences',
620 'Environmental Sciences Ecology' or 'Biodiversity Conservation' as *Web of Science Subject*
621 *categories*. The databases accessible to us in the Web of Science were CABI, SCIELO, WOS
622 (Web of Science Core Collection) and CCC (Current Contents Connect). We selected the set
623 of queries and keywords shown here after an initial scoping literature search phase in which
624 we also included an additional query (5#) accounting for terms related to biodiversity,
625 ecosystems and ES indicators (e.g. 'biodiversity OR ecosystem* OR "ecosystem* function*"
626 OR "biological diversity" OR species OR "ecosystem service*" OR habitat* OR trait* OR
627 vegetation* OR gene* OR landscape* OR biomass OR timber OR wood OR carbon OR
628 erosion OR *water* OR recreat* OR regulat* OR game* OR 'non-wood forest products' OR
629 'Mushroom*' OR 'nutrient*' OR '*fire*'); however, we observed that by adding this query we
630 were leaving out many articles that were relevant for this review (because of terminological
631 issues, eg many studies evaluate forest productivity using net primary production as indicator
632 instead of wood biomass or timber production) and therefore, we chose to retain only the
633 queries 1-4 that are more general.

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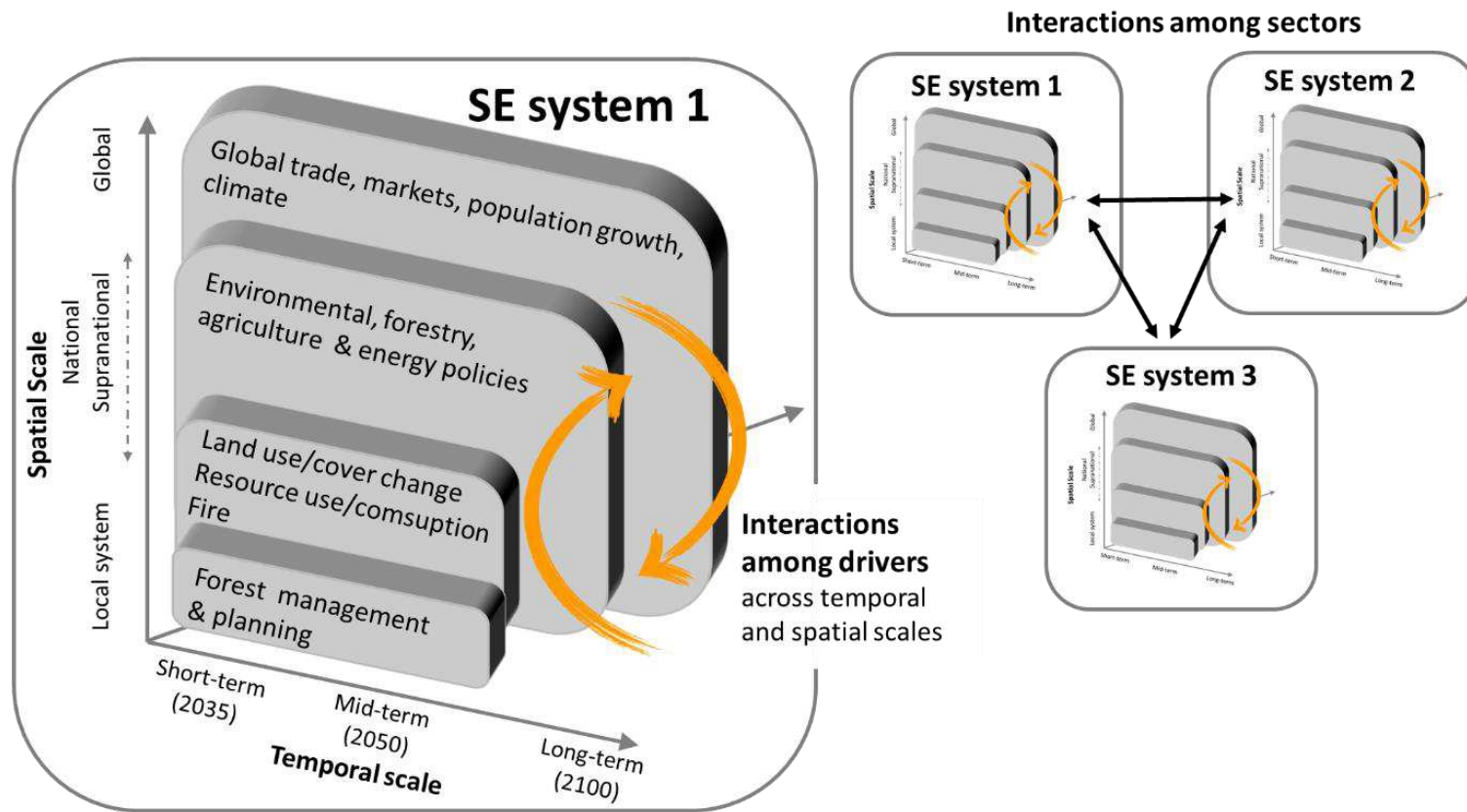
635 **Table 1.** Search terms used for the literature review. The search was made on June 2016 on
636 the complete range of references available at the Web of Science at that time.

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Study area location and original extent of the article	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global/EU wide: studies using models and scenario predictions for the global or Pan-European scales, from which we could extract results for the Mediterranean basin systems. • Regional (Pan-Mediterranean): predictions specifically designed for the Mediterranean region including case studies in two or more countries in the Mediterranean basin. • National (e.g. France) • Subnational (extent equivalent to level 2 of the NUTS 2013 classification of European regions available from the Eurostats web: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/; e.g. Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur) • Local (e.g. catchment A, municipality B)
Modelling approach used	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Correlative/regression: models assessing statistical relationships, whether causal or not, between two or more variables) • Mechanistic/Process-based or integrated approaches: mechanistic models are based on a theoretical understanding of relevant ecological processes that are explicitly incorporated in the model. On the other hand, integrated approaches combine multiple model types, processes and/or components of the system modelled in a unique framework (Kelly et al. 2013)
Scenario type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Already published (e.g. the latest greenhouse concentration scenarios adopted by the fifth IPCC Assessment Report: the representative concentration pathways; van Vuuren et al. 2011) • User made: scenarios made in the context of the article (e.g. through stakeholder/expert consultation or as a way of hypothesis testing) • Mixed: approaches combining already published scenarios with user made assumptions.
Scenario drivers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of drivers (understood as values of environmental/social conditions that change over the time horizon of the projection and that are used to make predictions of models) • Driver type: climate, forest management, fire, land-use, water-use, pollution, grazing levels, etc.
Nature and/or ecosystem service indicator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature indicators include measures of species/ecosystem distribution extent, species abundances or ecosystem structure/function. • Ecosystem services indicators (ES) were classified into 'provisioning', 'regulating & maintenance' or 'cultural' services following the Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES V4.3; www.cices.eu). We also evaluated fire risk as an ES indicator due to its importance in Mediterranean forests to regulate and maintain other ecosystem functions and processes (therefore included within the category 'regulating and maintenance').

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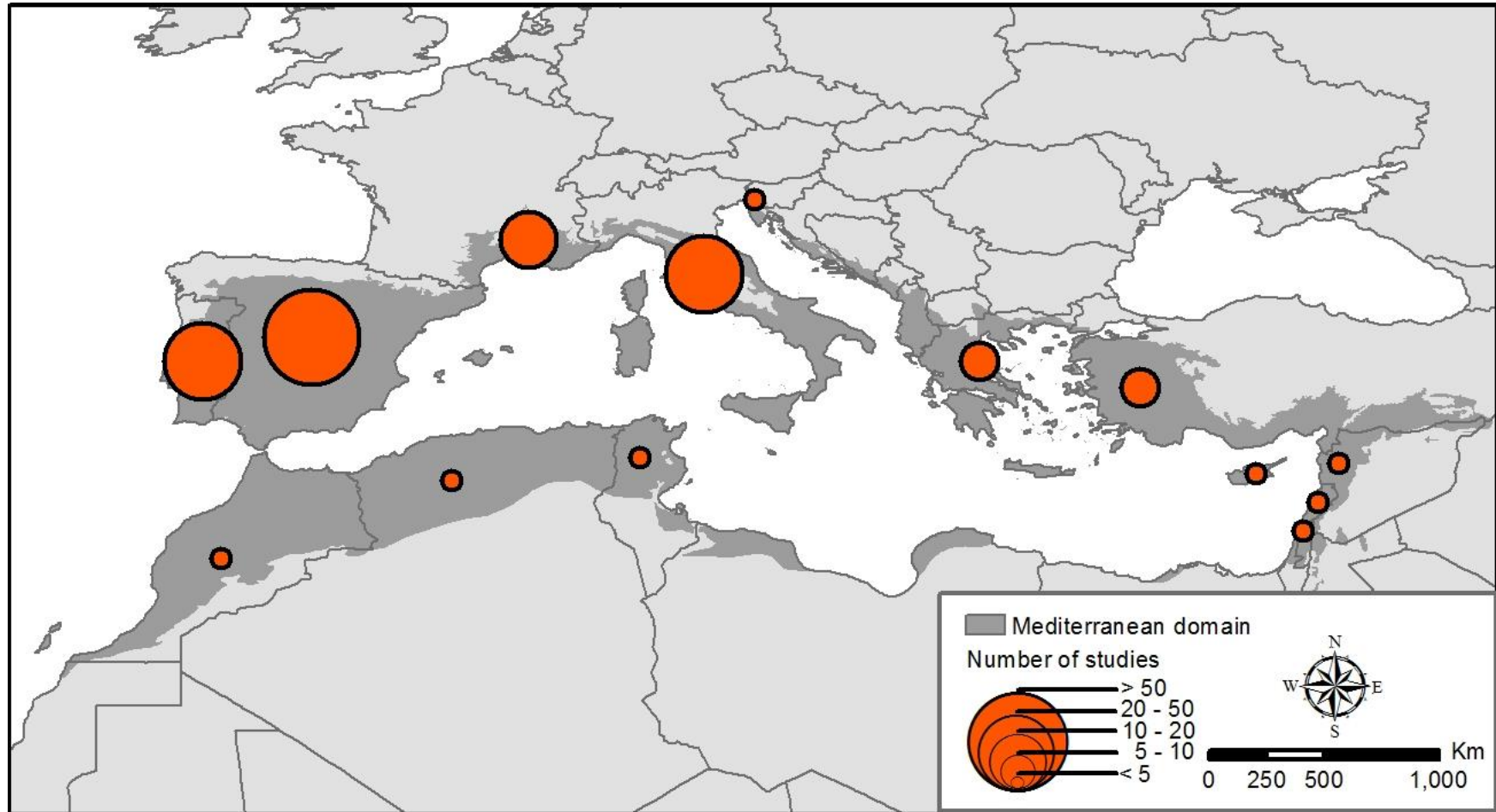
639 **Table 2.** Information extracted from the selected articles. The right-hand column lists in detail
640 the different categories into which we classified each study within each information field.



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642 **Figure 1.** Diagram of potential levels of integration in biodiversity/nature and ecosystem services future impact assessments. Within a given socio-ecological
 643 system (e.g. Mediterranean forests, SE system 1 box on the left side of the figure), scenarios and models should, to the maximum possible extent, account for
 644 both indirect and direct drivers of global change operating at multiple spatio-temporal scales, as well as for the interactions and feedbacks among them (orange
 645 arrows). Ideally, SE systems should not be evaluated in isolation, but rather considering their interactions with other socio-ecological systems (e.g. it could
 646 also be interpreted as interactions between multiple sectors, such as forestry, agriculture, water management, conservation and urban development; here
 647 represented with the interaction between SE systems 1, 2 and 3). In the example of the SE system 1 box, the distribution of the different drivers on X-axis
 648 reflects the temporal scale at which they are expected to exert a stronger impact on ecological processes operating in Mediterranean forest (e.g. whereas
 649 implementation of environmental policies generally have an impact in the system at the mid-, long- term, changes in land use have an effect in the impacted
 650 system in the short-term). On the other hand, the Y-dimension of the rectangles reflects the spatial scale at which drivers operate (e.g. whereas climate exerts
 651 an influence from global to local environmental conditions, fires or forest management have a more localized impact).

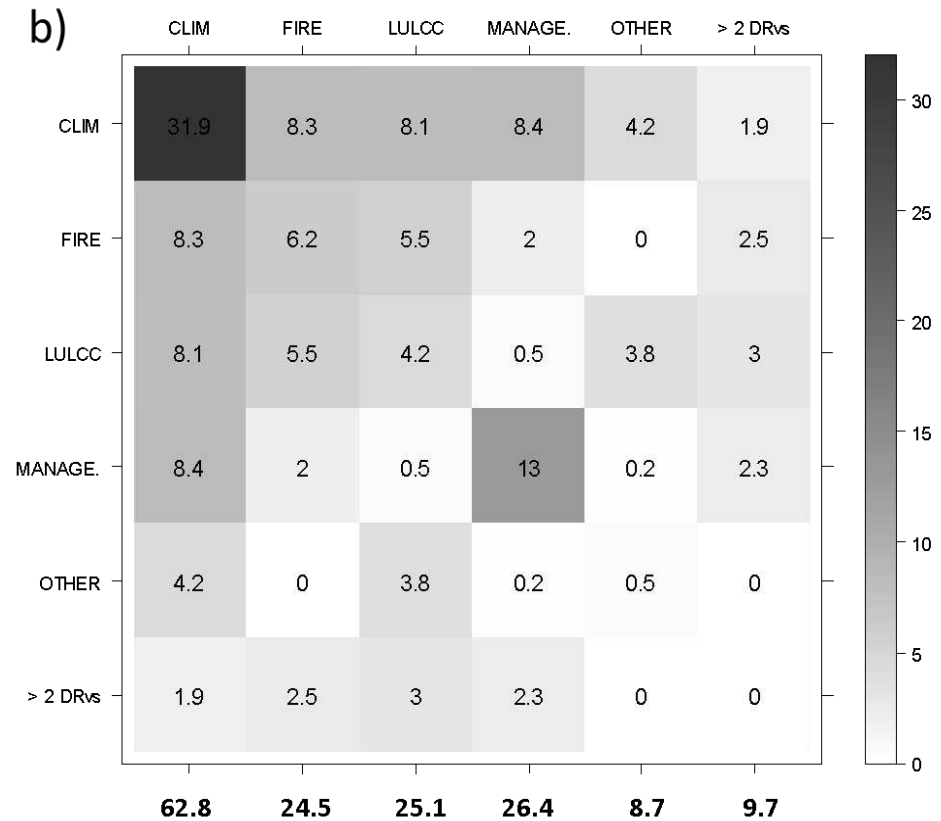
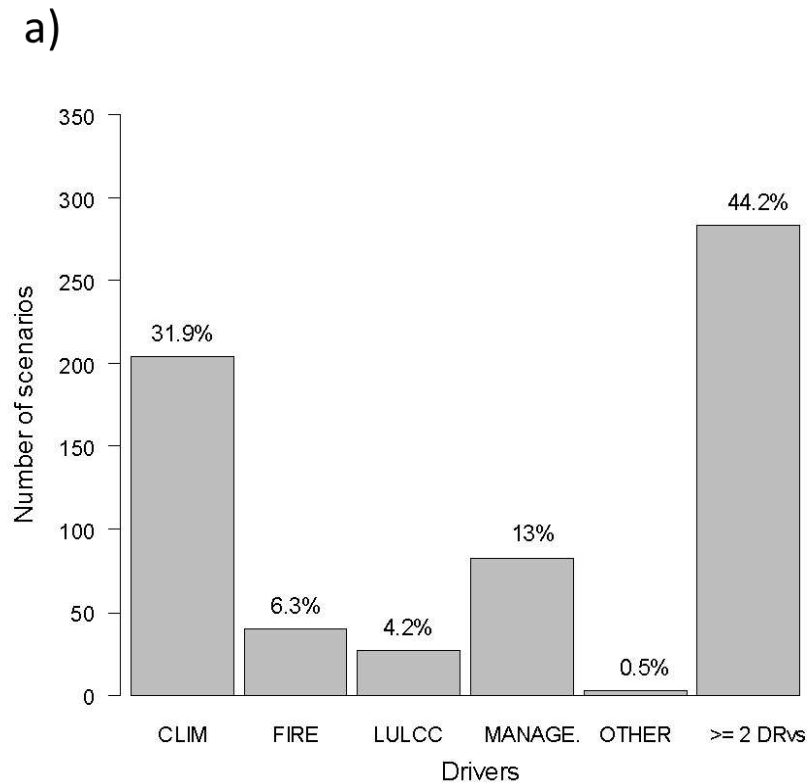
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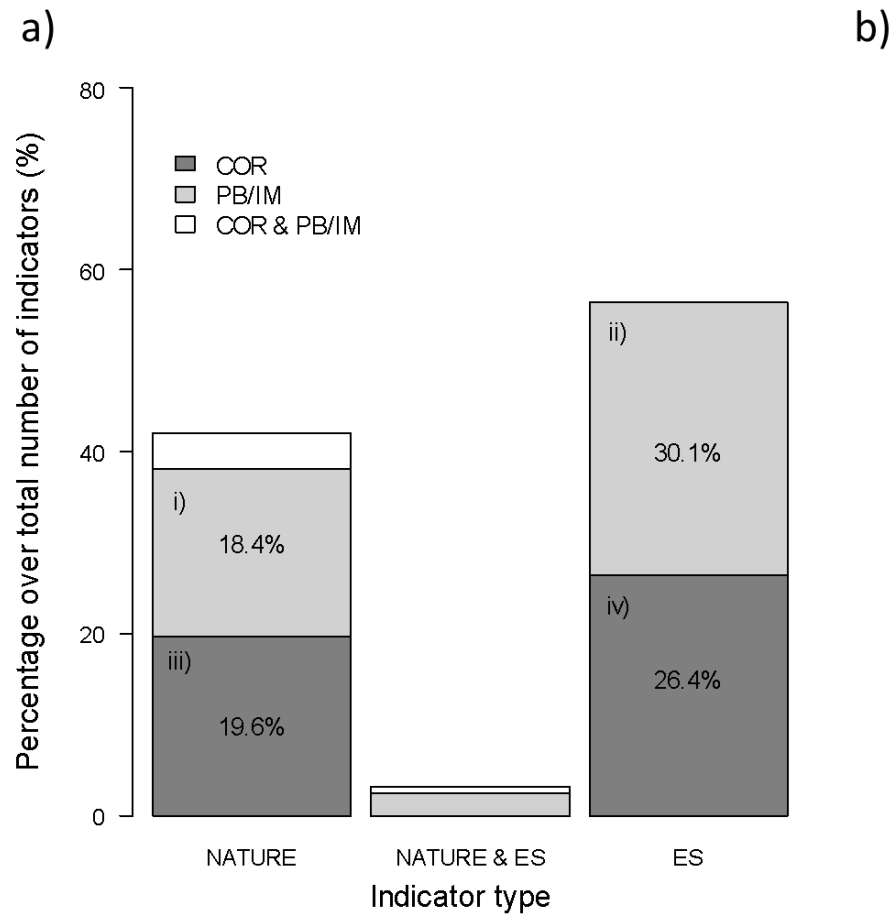
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654 **Figure 2.** Geographical distribution of 133 national, sub-national and local studies assessed in this review. Note: the circles indicate the country of the study,
 655 not the exact location where the study was carried out. The extent of the Mediterranean domain (shaded in dark grey in the map) was sourced from the
 656 European Environmental Agency (layer of biogeographical regions: <https://www.eea.europa.eu/data-and-maps/data/biogeographical-regions-europe-3>) and
 657 WWF (layer of Terrestrial Ecoregions of the World: <https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/terrestrial-ecoregions-of-the-world>). See Appendix S4 for
 658 correlations between the number of studies in each country and different socio-economic indicators.

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 661 **Figure 3.** Driver types and driver combinations used in the scenarios found in the literature review. **a)** Each bar represents the number of scenarios that use a
 662 single driver (X-axis: climate [CLIM], fire, land use land cover change [LULCC], management practices [MANAGE.], other drivers (OTHER; e.g. invasive
 663 species) or two drivers or more jointly (≥ 2 DRvs). The prevalence of the use of each of these drivers within the selected articles is indicated as percentage at
 664 the top of each bar (e.g. climate bar: 31.7 % of the scenarios used climate as the only driver of system change); **b)** Prevalence of multi-driver combinations in
 665 scenarios found in the selected literature. The most frequent combination of drivers are represented by darker gray tones (e.g. CLIM with FIRE, LULCC or
 666 MANAG), whereas lighter squares indicate less frequent driver combinations (e.g. LULCC with MANAGE.). Values within each square of the heatmap
 667 indicate percentages over the total number of scenarios in our database. Values in the diagonal of the heat map represent prevalence of single-driver scenarios
 668 (same values than in panel a). Values at the bottom of the heat map represent total use of a given driver (read from the top axis of the plot)
 669 of the selected articles (e.g. CLIM is considered as a driver of forest system change in 62.8% of the scenarios –either as solo-driver or in combination with other
 670 drivers-, whereas FIRE is used only in 24.5% of the scenarios). Note that the values are symmetrical at both sides of the diagonal.



b)

	Number	Drivers	Indicators
i) NATURE PB/IM			
	1	73.3 %	83.3 %
	2	16.7 %	3.3 %
	≥3	10 %	13.3 %
ii) ES PB/IM			
	1	57.1 %	49.0 %
	2	40.8 %	22.4 %
	≥3	2.0 %	28.6 %
iii) NATURE COR			
	1	90.6 %	75.0 %
	2	9.4 %	15.6 %
	≥3	-	9.4 %
iv) ES COR			
	1	83.7 %	72.1 %
	2	16.3 %	9.3 %
	≥3	-	18.6 %

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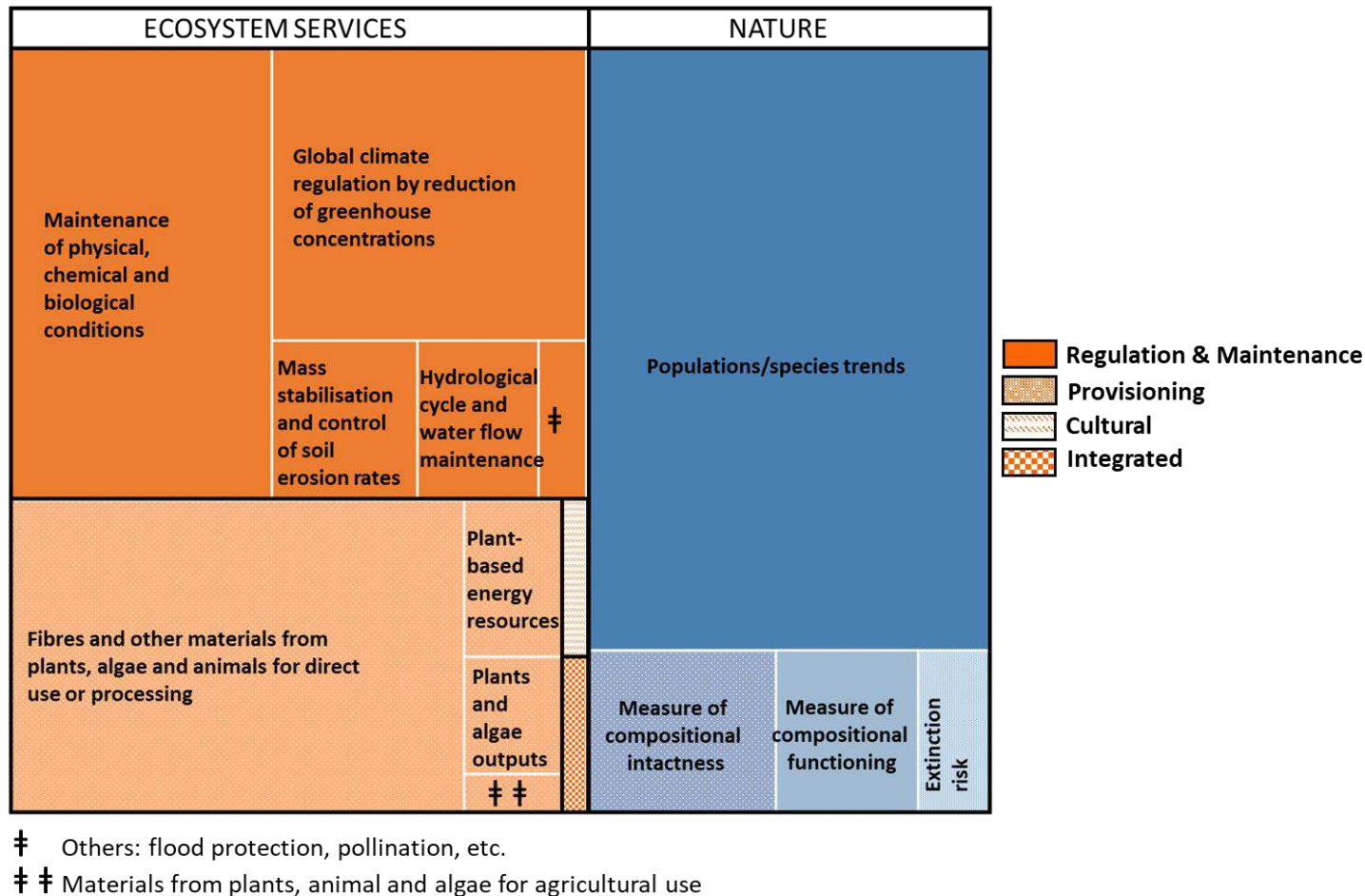
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Figure 4. a) Prevalence

in the selected literature of studies assessing ecosystem services indicators (ES), nature indicators (NATURE) or both types of indicators in the same study (NATURE & ES). Different grey tones indicate different modelling approaches: dark grey for studies using correlative approaches (COR), light grey for articles using process-based or integrated modelling approaches (PB/IM) and white for articles combining COR, PB and/or IM in the same study (COR & PB/IM). **b)** For each of the dominant indicator-modelling approach combinations in plot a – i) NATURE- PB/IM, ii) ES -PB/IM, iii) NATURE-COR and iv) ES-COR– we detail the frequency of use of single-driver vs multi-driver approaches, as well as the frequency of single-indicator vs multiple-indicator evaluations



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Figure 5. Types of indicators found in the literature search and their prevalence in the data set. Orange sections of the tree chart correspond to ecosystem service indicators: provisioning, regulating, cultural services or integrative (multi-service indicators). Blue shaded sections of the chart refer to nature indicators that we classified in four main groups: measures of extinction risk (e.g. viability of populations), indicators of species/population trends (e.g. niche expansion/contraction), measures of ecosystem functioning (e.g. trait diversity) and measures of compositional intactness (e.g. forest cover, forest patchiness). The size of each box indicates the prevalence of each indicator type in the selected literature (ecosystem service classes follow the Common International Classification of Ecosystem Services - CICES V4.3; www.cices.eu).