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# 1 **Creating virtual forest around the globe: Forest Factory 2.0 and** 2 **analysing the state space of forests**

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## 14 15 16 **Highlights**

- 17
- 18 • Recent model development, called "Forest Factory 2.0" which generates various
- 19 virtual forest stands for different biomes on earth
- 20 • Data product (including 700,000 forest stands) to demonstrate the potential of this
- 21 approach
- 22 • Gaining knowledge about forests by analyzing the state space of forests
- 23 • Systematic mechanistic analyses of structure-function relationships across biomes
- 24
- 25
- 26

## 27 **Abstract**

28  
29 Forests, as one of the most important carbon sinks on earth, are more and more under stress  
30 by environmental changes. The dynamics of forests and consequently their functions in  
31 general, begin to change. We therefore present a recent model development, called "Forest  
32 Factory 2.0", which generates various virtual forest stands for different biomes on earth. This  
33 approach allows to generate forests using the architecture and processes of forest models  
34 (here we use individual based gap model FORMIND). Using Forest Factory 2.0, we  
35 generated 700,000 forest stands in seven different ecoregions. In contrast to the tradition of  
36 investigating the development of individual forest stands over time, we used the Forest  
37 Factory 2.0 as a tool to gain knowledge about forests by analyzing the state space of forests.  
38 We conducted a structural sensitivity analysis to compare the relationships between structural  
39 properties and Biomass, productivity, as well as Species evenness of forests. In this study we  
40 analyse the state space of forests in different biomes and demonstrate the potential of this  
41 approach for theoretical ecology.

## 42 43 **Keywords**

44 forest model, forest generator, ecosystem functions, productivity, forest biomass, forest  
45 factory  
46  
47

## 48 1. Introduction

49

50 Forests cover 25% of the global land surface (Gibson et al. 2011). They play a major role for  
51 the global carbon cycle because of their function as carbon storage and their contributions to  
52 global carbon fluxes (Grace et al. 2014, Bonan 2008). Forests are important for sustaining  
53 biodiversity and provide habitat for 70% of all animal species (Gibson et al. 2011, Myers et al.  
54 2000, Pimm et al. 2014). Further, forests exhibit a diversity of spatial structure and change their  
55 structure due to natural succession, management or disturbances (Pan et al. 2013).

56

57 While forest ecosystems are exposed to environmental change, like all complex adaptive  
58 systems, they have a certain capacity to cope with it. However, if these change processes occur  
59 too frequently, on too large spatial scales, with too high intensity, the adaptive capacity of the  
60 forests may be exceeded. Global change processes such as climate change and related effects  
61 such as drought, heat waves, fire, storms or pest outbreaks (IPCC 2013), but also deforestation  
62 (IPCC 2013) and fragmentation (Taubert et al. 2018, Fischer 2021, FAO 2022) are accelerating  
63 and occur simultaneously. As a result, the dynamics of the forests would change as well as their  
64 tree species composition and structure. Therefore, forests appear to be under increasing  
65 pressure (McDowell et al. 2020), affecting forest biodiversity in general as well as the diversity  
66 of functions provided by forests. This shows the urgency of sustaining their functioning,  
67 understanding and enhancing their adaptive capacity, and appropriately adapting their  
68 management.

69

70 Prerequisite for addressing these challenges, however, is a sound understanding of structure-  
71 function relationships, esp. between the properties of forests (species-compositional and  
72 spatial-structural) and their functions (e.g. carbon flux and storage). To analyze forests  
73 ecosystems the perspectives of community ecology (organismal aspects, diversity of species  
74 and structure) and ecosystem ecology (matter and energy flux aspects, biogeochemical cycles)  
75 are not separable. A mechanistic understanding of the functioning of ecosystems can only be  
76 gained if these two perspectives are adequately linked to one another (Loreau 2010). However,  
77 though there are many empirical studies based on data on forest inventories, the number of  
78 available samples and plots or the lack of focus in monitoring make it difficult to create a  
79 sufficiently complete picture (Lindenmayer and Likens 2009, Lindenmayer et al. 2011). This  
80 challenge may be overcome by using remote sensing data, but relating and condensing this  
81 large scaled data to the local or individual scale remains a challenge (Ma et al. 2020). Another  
82 challenge is to capture the inherent spatial heterogeneity of environmental conditions and how  
83 they change in response to projected changing processes, especially among different biomes.  
84 Thus, there is a huge variety in the environmental factors which are supposed to influence forest  
85 properties (species composition and structure) and the shape of the structure-function  
86 relationship. The needed relevant variables are mostly not fully covered by the existing  
87 inventories and datasets.

88

89 Forest models can help to bridge the gap between multiscale field data and processes enabling  
90 a multivariate view of forests. Nevertheless, different types of models have different  
91 application fields. For example, global vegetation models have a focus on large spatial scales

92 and time scales, whereas individual-based models focus on smaller scales, as they consider  
93 processes at tree level and can thus also analyze structural dynamics (Maréchaux et al. 2021).  
94 Thus, individual-based models are particularly suitable for considering ecosystem dynamics  
95 as an emergent outcome from the interaction of processes at individual level. This allows the  
96 identification of structural properties and functional characteristics of forests at different spatial  
97 scales as they emerge from the assumed environmental conditions. This also opens up the  
98 opportunity for correlative analyses of the structure–function relationship (Roedig et al. 2018,  
99 Thurner et al. 2017). However, the causal relationships underlying them are not yet satisfyingly  
100 understood.

101  
102 We introduce a new way of sensitivity analysis. The variation parameter values or the  
103 comparison of different scenarios is a prominent way of sensitivity analysis to gain causal  
104 understanding of relationships. We perform sensitivity analysis not by varying parameters, but  
105 by analyzing millions of initial states to gain understanding of the relationship between forest  
106 functions and forest structure for different biomes. Performing this way of sensitivity analysis  
107 is not common so far and methods for this are rare. Examples for such a powerful application  
108 are the use of landscape generators in the context of impact assessments of land use scenarios  
109 (Langhammer et al. 2019, Engel et al. 2012) and the use of weather generators in the frame of  
110 climate impact analyses (Friend 1998, Kumagai et al. 2004).

111  
112 For forests, such a generator was developed by Bohn & Huth 2017, the so-called ‘forest factory  
113 approach’. In one of their studies they generated virtual forest stands that possibly could exist  
114 in Central Europe. This multivariate dataset enabled a multidimensional investigation of the  
115 relationships between structural properties, plant diversity and productivity (Bohn & Huth  
116 2017, Bohn et al. 2018). This promising approach has shown on the basis of simple mechanisms  
117 that over a broad range of forest stands, several forest properties (biodiversity and structure)  
118 have to be considered to understand forest productivity. The forest factory approach establishes  
119 a new way to analyze forests which does not require simulating forests over long periods of  
120 time. Instead the focus of the analysis is on the state space of the forests (described by structure  
121 properties). Due to the regional limitations of the forest factory by Bohn and Huth (focus on  
122 European forests), it offers potential for further research. To realize the potential and to analyze  
123 a causal relationship between their structural -, diversity -, and productivity relationships for  
124 different biomes, a further development and extension of the forest factory approach is  
125 necessary.

126  
127 In this study we present a novel software tool - the Forest Factory 2.0 - which creates millions  
128 of virtual forest stands, covering various species compositions and structural properties for  
129 different biomes.

130 Additionally, we provide a data product generated with the software tool to demonstrate the  
131 potential of this approach for systematic mechanistic analyses of structure-function  
132 relationships across biomes. The data product contains in total 700,000 forest stands including  
133 12 forest properties. These forest stands consist of over 11 million individual trees with over  
134 20 tree properties.

135

136 In this study, we show examples of ecological analysis based on the generated forests. First,  
137 we compare the state space (based on four structural properties) of forests between seven  
138 regions derived for different biomes. Second, we compare the relationships between the four  
139 structural properties of forests and (i) biomass (as a proxy for the carbon stock), (ii)  
140 aboveground wood production AWP (as a proxy for the carbon flux), and (iii) species evenness  
141 (as an example for a biodiversity index). With the analysis, we want to show the potential of  
142 the presented approach for a wide range of research questions.

143

## 144 **2. Methodical concept**

145

146 With the Forest Factory 2.0 we have developed a software tool that makes it possible to create  
147 virtual natural forests that could exist in nature. The Forest Factory 2.0 allows through its  
148 algorithm a fast and generic generation of forests. In contrast to forest simulations, the Forest  
149 Factory approach does not consider and simulate forests over a long period of time. It generates  
150 various forests describing different states of succession, as well as management and disturbed  
151 forest stands also for different species mixtures. The forests can be generated for different  
152 regions of the world. In this study we produced 700,000 forest stands in total for seven different  
153 ecoregions. The background knowledge, i.e. the information and processes for the generation  
154 of forests, is provided by forest inventories and studies which are represented in the  
155 parameterizations of forest models (here we use the forest model FORMIND). A large number  
156 of ecological properties can be calculated for each generated forest, which allows a detailed  
157 analysis of the relationships between forest properties. Comparison of forest stands for different  
158 ecoregions is made possible by using the same algorithm for each forest stand generated.

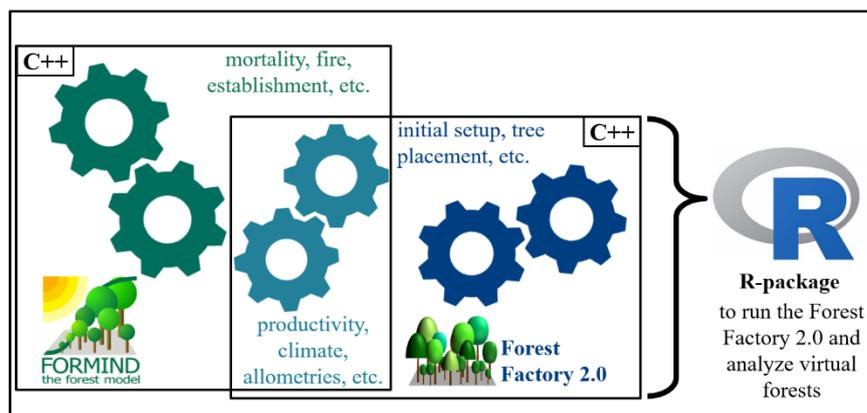
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### 160 **2.1 Forest Factory 2.0**

161

162 For processes such as competition and productivity, the Forest Factory 2 uses the individual-  
163 and process-based forest model FORMIND. This forest model allows the simulation of species  
164 rich forests and also considers the complex age structure of their tree community. FORMIND  
165 has been extensively tested and applied to tropical forests (Köhler and Hutz 2004, Gutiérrez  
166 and Huth 2012, Huth and Ditzer 2001, Kammesheidt et al. 2001, Köhler et al. 2003, Köhler  
167 and Huth 2007, Rüger et al. 2008, Fischer et al. 2014, Rödig et al. 2019) and temperate forests  
168 (Bohn et al. 2014, Bruening et al. 2021, Rüger et al. 2007) and grasslands (Taubert et al. 2012).  
169 It is an individual-based model which means that the growth of every single tree is simulated.  
170 The model considers four main process groups: growth of single trees (increment of tree  
171 biomass, stem diameter and height), mortality, recruitment, and competition (e.g. for light and  
172 space). FORMIND is also used for large scale simulations (Paulick et al. 2017, Rödig et al.  
173 2018) e.g. forest-wide carbon balances in the Amazon. The Forest Factory 2.0, is implemented  
174 as an independent module of FORMIND in C++ language and uses processes of the forest  
175 model FORMIND (like competition for light and allometries). The processes of the forest  
176 model can be modified independently of the Forest Factory 2.0. It is possible to combine the  
177 Forest Factory 2.0 with other forest models.

178



189

190 **Figure 1:** Interdependencies of FORMIND, Forest Factory 2.0 and the R package. The Forest Factory use  
 191 processes of the forest model FORMIND. The R package (wrapper of C++ code) helps to run the Forest Factory  
 192 2.0 and process the generated forest stands to a data product. It also prevents some features for the analysis of the  
 193 data product.

194

195 The methodology of the Forest Factory 2.0 follows the Forest Factory (Bohn 2017), that  
 196 generated forest stands for the temperate zone and was implemented in the language R. In this  
 197 paper, we introduce a new version of the Forest Factory that includes important new  
 198 components and extensions that make it applicable on a global scale. We also provide an R  
 199 package that facilitates the use of Forest Factory 2.0 (Figure 1). This package allows analysis  
 200 of the data product that we publish or that users generate themselves.

201 The Forest Factory 2.0 can produce a large number of virtual forest stands (20m x 20m base  
 202 area and funnel shape) for each available parameterization, which is representing an ecoregion.  
 203 Every tree in the generated forest stand must have a positive productivity (gross primary  
 204 production > respiration). In FORMIND a negative productivity causes the dying of trees. To  
 205 calculate the productivity, we calculate the biomass increment of every placed tree over one  
 206 year, which results from the different ecoregion-specific parameterizations (e.g. climate). To  
 207 create forests for an ecoregion the Forest Factory needs information on climate conditions and  
 208 a parameter set which consists of species-specific parameters e.g. concerning the tree geometry,  
 209 productivity and species pool (see Section 2.3. for details) which are representative for an  
 210 ecoregion.

211

212 As an initial information, which is valid for all generated forest stands, the Forest Factory 2.0  
 213 assumes a minimum and maximum height of the trees  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$ , an overall maximum  
 214 total crown volume  $\rho_{max}$  and an initial species pool. The overall maximum total crown volume  
 215  $\rho_{max}$  is the maximum sum of crown volume of all trees valid for every forest stand. The species  
 216 pool is defined by the parameterization of each ecoregion and each species/plant functional  
 217 type is representing a species or group of species with similar functional and morphological  
 218 characteristics. This initial information is required to start the Forest Factory 2.0 (Figure 2).

219 Once started, the Forest Factory 2.0 pre-selects for each forest stand a minimum and maximum  
 220 height of trees  $h_{min}$  and  $h_{max}$  (from the initial  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$ ), a maximum total crown  
 221 volume  $\rho$  and a group of plant functional types. The pre-selection for  $h_{min}$ ,  $h_{max}$  and the  
 222 maximum total crown volume  $\rho$  is done by random assuming uniform distributions (the

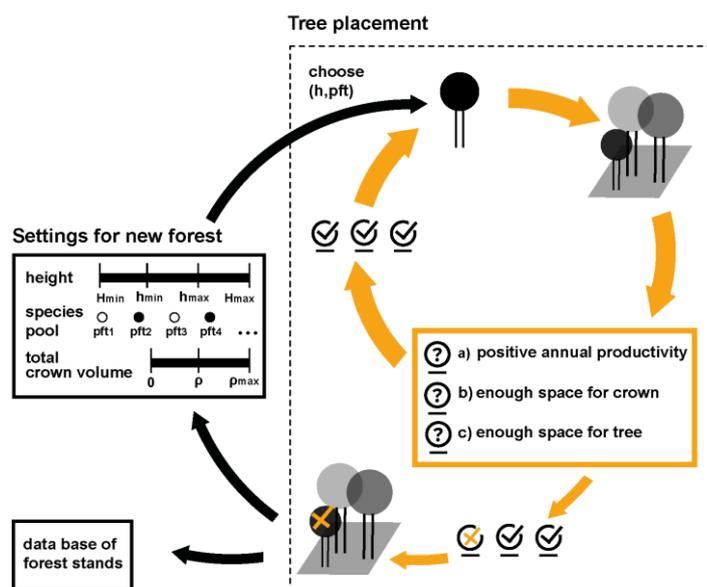
223 boundaries are  $[H_{min}, H_{max}]$  and  $[0, \rho_{max}]$ ). The pre- selection of  $h_{min}, h_{max}$  for every forest  
224 stands also allows the generation of even aged forests. The pre-selection of the species pool for  
225 each forest stand is done by random assuming a uniform distribution to select the number of  
226 species (more details in Appendix).

227 After the pre-selection for the forest stand is done, one tree after another is planted. The explicit  
228 position of a tree in the forest stand is not important due to the spatially implicit approach of  
229 forest gap models, where the position is randomly chosen at the end of the tree placement  
230 procedure. A tree height for the tree to be planted is selected from a predefined height  
231 distribution ( $X \sim Exp(-0.05), h = X | X \in [h_{min}, h_{max}]$ ). The selected species pool is used to  
232 determine randomly the species type of a new tree (each species has an equal probability). For  
233 each tree these two attributes (height and species type) are selected and are used to calculate  
234 other attributes of the tree. Attributes are derived from processes and the parameter input of the  
235 used forest model (here we use FORMIND for different forest biomes). For the tree placement,  
236 it is checked if: a) each tree has a positive productivity, b) there is still space for the canopy of  
237 this tree (in each height layer, all tree crowns together must not exceed the boundaries of the  
238 forest stand) and c) the maximum total crown volume is not exceeded (we allow a certain  
239 maximum density in three-dimensional space: the maximum total crown volume). The  
240 selection rules for tree height and tree species is the same for each tree. If b) or c) is violated,  
241 the tree will not be considered, the tree placement for this forest is terminated and the created  
242 forest stand is saved in a database. If a) is violated and the calculated productivity over one  
243 year is negative, an attempt is made to replace the tree with a tree of a different species (with  
244 the same height and out of the selected species pool for this forest stand). If the tree has now a  
245 positive productivity, it is placed, if not, the tree placement for this forest is terminated (and  
246 the forest stand is saved). Every time a new tree is placed the annual productivity of all previous  
247 planted trees have to be recalculated (e.g. due to the change of light availability). If one or more  
248 trees have a negative productivity the algorithm try to replace them with tree(s) of another  
249 species and if this doesn't work the tree placement for the forest is terminated. The generation  
250 of a new forest stand starts.

251 In this way, the Forest Factory can be used to generate millions of forests for different  
252 ecoregions and climates (by considering input parameterizations). The forests describe  
253 different states of succession (e.g. by differentiate  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$ ), as well as managed (e.g.  
254 even aged forests by the selection of  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$  values with a small difference) or  
255 disturbed forest stands (e.g. by selecting a low overall maximum total crown volume  $\rho_{max}$ )  
256 including different species mixtures. The goal is to generate as many potential forest states as  
257 possible. For specific analyses of e.g. even-aged forests or late-successional forests, the virtual  
258 forests must be filtered according to the desired attributes.

259 For the derived forest stands a large number of properties and characteristics can be calculated  
260 by using the methods of the forest model e.g. for leaf area, diameter increment, LAI per height  
261 layer, size distribution, biomass, maintenance respiration, gross primary production (GPP), net  
262 ecosystem carbon exchange (NEE). Since we simulate the productivity of each forest over only  
263 one year, we here do not focus on temporal evolution, but on states and benefit from the  
264 knowledge contained in widely applied and long-established forest models (here FORMIND).

265 The Forest Factory 2.0 enables the possibility for a coupling with other forest models. The  
 266 coupling setup would run an iterative process. The Forest Factory provides tree and forest stand  
 267 information to the corresponding forest model. The calculation of productivity and tree  
 268 attributes (e.g. due to allometry) takes place in the forest model, and is reported back to the  
 269 Forest Factory.



**Figure 2:** Concept of the Forest Factory 2.0. For each forest, Forest Factory 2.0 pre-selects a minimum and maximum height of trees, a group of species and a maximum total crown volume (sum of crown volume of all trees). Each tree is determined by a height (random from height distribution) and a species (random from the species pool). A new tree is added to the forest stand until the new tree has no positive productivity or space. Then the tree is deleted, the forest stand is saved in the data base and a new forest stand is generated.

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## 2.2 Forest Factory (Bohn and Huth 2017) vs. Forest Factory 2.0

In this Section, we will explain the main differences between the Forest Factory by Bohn and Huth (2017) and the Forest Factory 2.0 and show how we have significantly extended the approach.

Forest Factory (Bohn, Huth 2017)	Forest Factory 2.0
10 000 forest stands per hour (standard notebook)	3 mio forest stands per hour (standard notebook)
programming language R	C++ and integration in the actual forest model (here FORMIND)
only temperate forests	forests in different biomes (ecoregions)
15 pre-defined stem diameter distributions	one continuous height distribution for tree placement
only stem diameters up to 0.5 m	no restrictions for stem diameter
planting trees until they are non-productive	replacing non-productive trees (by other species)
algorithm produces clustered sampling	more equally distributed sampling
	open source code and open data product

295  
 296

**Table 1:** Improvements of the Forest Factory 2.0 in comparison to the Forest Factory (Bohn and Huth 2017)

297 One important advantage of ForestFactory 2.0 compared to the Forest Factory by Bohn and  
 298 Huth (Table 1) is a significant speed increase (3 million forest stands per hour, 30 times faster),  
 299 which allows the creation of a huge number of forest stands. Further, it is now possible to create  
 300 forests for all regions of the world for which parameter sets are available (here for the forest  
 301 model FORMIND).

302 As the Forest Factory 2.0 is a part of the FORMIND model repository, functional model  
 303 improvements are automatically available for the forest factory. This allows the Forest Factory  
 304 2.0 to use recently developed sub-modules of the forest model. For example, lidar waveforms  
 305 or light reflectance spectra can be calculated for the generated forest stands. It is also possible  
 306 to use the generated forests directly as input for simulations, to analyze future development of  
 307 these forests.

308 Compared to the Forest Factory by Bohn and Huth, in the Forest Factory 2.0 the input  
 309 parameters were reduced. There is only one function for tree height distribution to derive stem  
 310 diameter as input (in the old version there were 15 fixed stem diameter distributions). This  
 311 increases the flexibility and the possibilities for analysis. With the new Forest Factory 2.0, we  
 312 can investigate the state space of the forests more evenly, i.e., different characteristics of the  
 313 forest structure occur with sufficiently equal abundance (Appendix Figure A1).

314 We provide an open source R + Phyton package and a data product of forest stands to enable  
 315 accessibility to a wide range of users. The R package  
 316 (<https://git.ufz.de/angermue/forestfactory>) represents an interface which makes it possible to  
 317 operate with the Forest Factory 2.0 from the R platform. An overview of the forest dataset is  
 318 given in Appendix (Table A1).

319

### 320 2.3. Study Sites

Name in Paper	Biome short description	Number of pfts	Paper
Amazon	entire tropical forest in the Amazon using plant functional typed	3	Rödiger et al. 2017
Panama	tropical lowland rainforest on Barro Colorado Island	4	Knapp et al. 2018
Germany	temperate forest in central Europe	8	Bohn, Huth 2014
US	temperate forest within the Northeast US	9	Bruening 2021
Ecuador	tropical evergreen montane rain forest in southern Ecuador	7	Dislich 2009
Malaysia	Southeastern Asian tropical rainforest (North Borneo, Malaysia)	4	update von Köhler Huth 2004
Tanzania	tropical submontane and lower montane rainforest at Mt. Kilimanjaro	6	Fischer et al. 2015

321

322 **Table 2:** Overview of the ecoregions, parameterizations and climate used for this study

323

324 The parameterizations (representing ecoregions in Table 2) represent the synthesis of  
325 information of many field measurements and inventories, not only concerning the species-  
326 specific allometric tree attributes but also concerning tree growth and productivity. Due to this  
327 we use for all ecoregions the same kind of information only with different values. The  
328 parameterizations can therefore be interpreted as a kind of recipe with always the same  
329 ingredients, in different quantities. The cooking process - the algorithm of the Forest Factory 2  
330 - works for all parameterizations according to the same principle. The used parameterizations  
331 belong to different forest stands in different regions and we decided to use the names of the  
332 ecoregions in the paper to make clear where the investigated forests are located. For the  
333 generation of temperate forests in Germany we use a daily based climate data set of the Hainich  
334 National Park (Thuringia, Germany) for the year 2007. For the other regions we used reduced  
335 climate information which is described in the Appendix (Section 3).

336

## 337 2.4. Simulations & Analysis

338

339 In this study we present results for forest stands in seven different ecoregions (see Table 2).  
340 The ecoregions consist of two temperate regions (one in North America, one in Europe) and  
341 five tropical regions (two in South America, one in central America, one in Africa, one in Asia).  
342 For each region we generated 100,000 forest stands with the Forest Factory 2.0 (initial  
343 parameters:  $H_{min} = 5\text{ m}$ ,  $H_{max} = 65\text{ m}$  and the overall maximum total crown volume  $\rho_{max} =$   
344  $0.78$ ). Each region provides an initial species pool. We analyzed all forest stands for structural  
345 attributes (basal area, LAI, height heterogeneity, maximum height) and functional  
346 characteristics (above-ground wood productivity AWP, aboveground biomass and species  
347 evenness as an indicator for biodiversity. Species evenness is calculated by the Shannon  
348 Equitability Index (Heip 1974, Peet 1975). The Shannon Index (Shannon 1948) is normalized  
349 by the logarithm of the maximum number of species (we treat pfts as species here).

350

351 In a first step we explored under which structural conditions forests can exist in different  
352 ecoregions. For this, we use a state space approach. This space is determined here by four  
353 structural variables: maximum height, basal area, height heterogeneity, and LAI.

354 In Chapter 3.1 we investigated this state space of forests (mentioned above), by using diagrams  
355 (Figure 3) similar to the classical diagrams of Whittaker, in which he analyzed the relation  
356 between climate (average annual temperature and precipitation) and vegetation types  
357 (Whittaker 1970). Instead of climatic attributes we investigate here four structural properties  
358 (two in each Figure). We analyzed maximum height of trees (this corresponds to the forest  
359 height) and basal area which are typical properties to describe the structure of forests.  
360 Additionally, we investigated the role of tree height variability (here by using the standard  
361 deviation of the tree heights which we define as height heterogeneity) and leaf area index. Each  
362 generated forest stand can be represented as a point in the state space by a combination of these  
363 structural properties. We generated 700,000 forest stands, each representing a possible state,  
364 resulting in 700,000 points in the state space (100,000 for each ecoregion). To analyze the state  
365 space of the generated forest stands with positive productivity (Section 3.1.), we examined the

366 area which is covered by 100,000 forest stands of the same ecoregion by calculating the  
 367 envelope around the points (each point represents one forest stand). These envelopes are  
 368 calculated with the R package Concaveman (which uses convex hulls with concavity, for  
 369 details please see Appendix Section 4).

370 To investigate the relationship between different forest properties and characteristics (Section  
 371 3.2.) we derived heatmaps (Figure 4,5) where the x and y axis describe structural properties  
 372 and the color describe functional characteristics: biomass (carbon stock), AWP (carbon flow)  
 373 and evenness (biodiversity). The maps are rastered so one cell contains information of several  
 374 forest stands with the same structural properties. The shown value for a cell represents the mean  
 375 value over these forest stands. We also derived maximum value and standard deviation for  
 376 these analyses (shown in the Appendix).

377 To allow direct comparison of forests between the seven ecoregions, we examined forests by  
 378 their functions (biomass, AWP, evenness) that are similar in all four structural properties  
 379 (Figure 6). For these similar structured forests, we calculated the mean value of their functional  
 380 characteristics and compared them in a 1:1 graph for three different regions. Additionally, the  
 381 regression line and the adjusted  $R^2$  were calculated.

382 For all analysis we considered only forest stands with a basal area under 100. In the Appendix  
 383 the analysis of the maximum values and the standard deviation of the biomass, AWP and  
 384 species evenness have been added (see Appendix Figures A7 – A11).

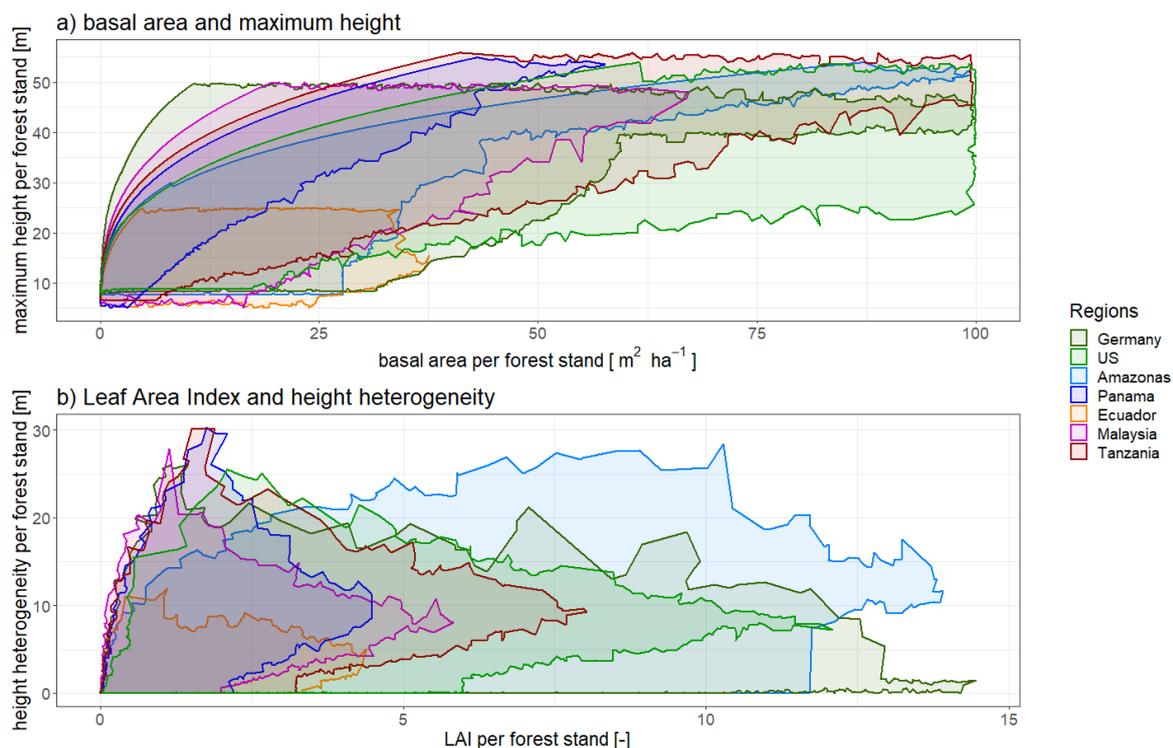
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### 386 3. Results

387

#### 388 3.1. Analysis of forest structure in different ecoregions

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391

392 **Figure 3:** Analysis of the state space of generated forests. We examined the area which is covered by 100,000  
393 forest stands of the same ecoregion by calculating the envelope around the points (for more details please see  
394 Appendix Section 4). Each generated forest stand can be represented as a point in the state space by a  
395 combination of the structural properties: a) maximum height and basal area; b) tree height heterogeneity and  
396 LAI. Different colors are indicating different ecoregions.

397

398 In the first step, we are looking at the structural characteristics of forest stands for the different  
399 ecoregions created by the Forest Factory 2.0 (Figure 3) by calculating the basal area, maximum  
400 height, height heterogeneity and LAI for each forest stand. The analysis in Figure 3 shows  
401 which combinations of maximum height/basal area and height heterogeneity/LAI lead to  
402 forests with positive productivity. Forests with properties outside the envelope line, don't have  
403 positive productivity. We observe mostly similarly-shaped envelopes with different sizes for  
404 the different ecoregions (represented by the different colors).

405

406 The analysis shows typical limitations of forest stands. Forest stands with a high basal area and  
407 low or moderate maximum height (empty area at the right bottom in Fig. 3a) do not occur.  
408 Large trees have large crowns. This tree allometries in combination with limited space restrict  
409 the abundance of these trees and also influences the resulting basal area (empty area at top left).  
410 The physiological and species-specific allometric interactions result in a typical shape in the  
411 state space that curves to the right.

412

413 Our forest stands can also be analyzed in a different state space, consisting of the LAI and the  
414 height heterogeneity. In most ecoregions, the largest values for tree height heterogeneity occur  
415 for forest stands with low LAI values, while the highest LAI values occur in forests with low  
416 to moderate tree height heterogeneity (Fig. 3b). As expected, the Brazilian Amazon has a large  
417 diversity of forest stands, and the shape of the envelope is quite different compared to other  
418 regions, e.g., without a peak at the top left (high height heterogeneity, low LAI).

419 The smallest area within the envelopes in both Figures (3a + 3b) is found for mountain forests  
420 of Ecuador (low maximum tree height).

421 We also investigated the frequency distributions of the forest properties of the forests within  
422 the illustrated areas (Appendix Figure A1).

423

### 424 **3.2. Relationship between forest structure and ecosystem functions in different ecoregions**

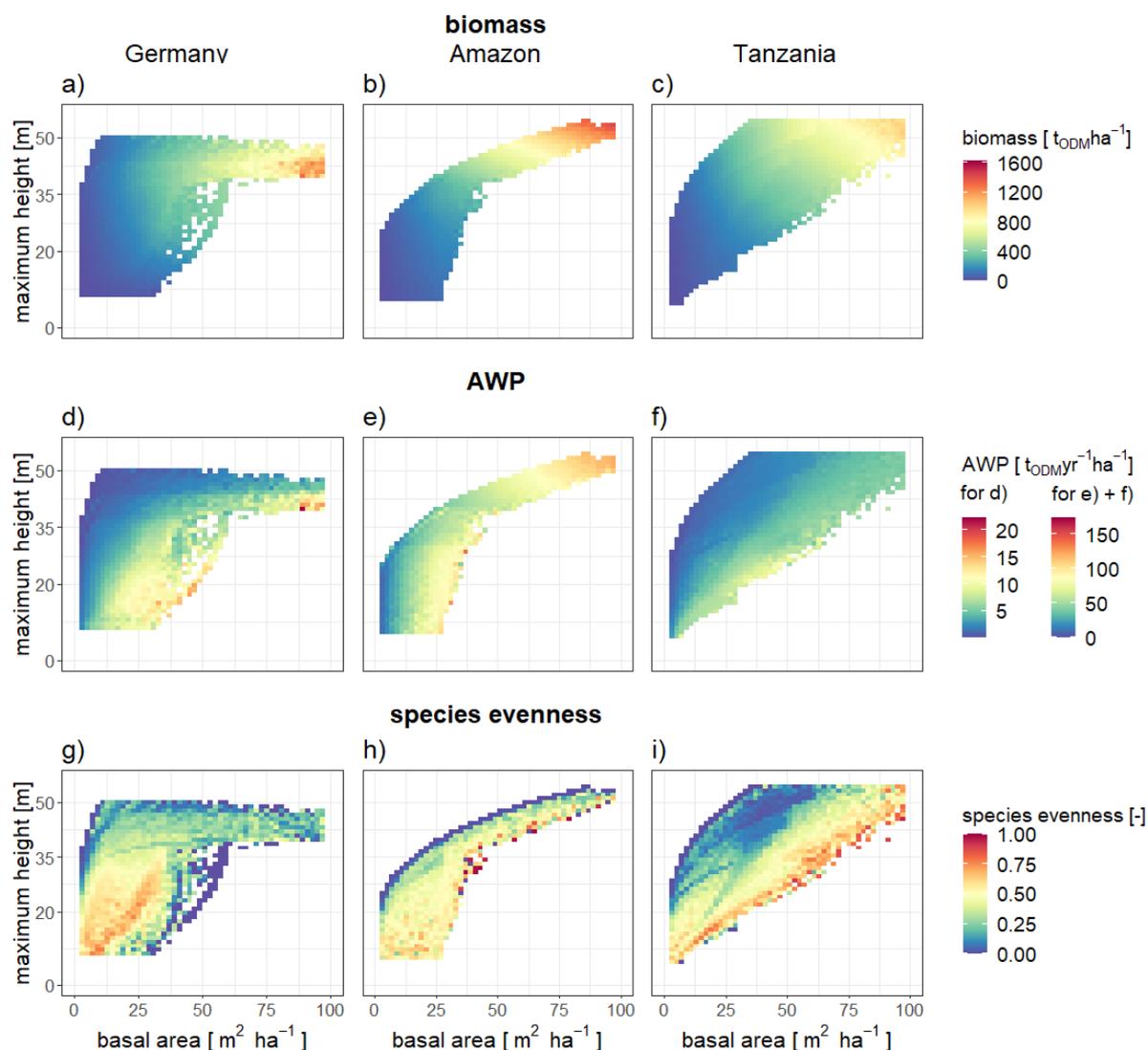
425

426 The Forest Factory 2.0 allows us also to analyze how structural properties (maximum height  
427 and basal area) affect functional characteristics (biomass, above-ground wood productivity  
428 (AWP), and evenness in the species composition (normalized Shannon Index as proxy for  
429 biodiversity). The biomass-related plots (Fig. 4: a, b, c) reveal a structure-function relationship  
430 that is quite similar for all investigated regions. Biomass is largely determined by the basal area  
431 and maximum height.

432

433 The analysis of the German forest stands (Fig. 4a) shows some interesting details for forests  
434 with high biomass and high basal area (top right area). Forests with a lower maximum height  
435 (40 m - 45 m) have on average a higher biomass than forests with a larger maximum height (>  
436 45 m). With the Forest Factory, it is possible to analyze each individual tree of the

437 corresponding forest stands. They all consist of trees of the species *Picea abies*. This is the tree  
 438 species with the largest maximum height in the analysis for this region, but it has a low wood  
 439 density, which leads to a lower forest biomass.  
 440



441  
 442

443 **Figure 4:** Relationship between structural properties (basal area and maximum height per forest stand) and  
 444 biomass (a-c), above-ground productivity (d-f) and species evenness (g-i) for three selected ecoregions (Germany,  
 445 Amazon, Tanzania). The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean value of the investigated property of  
 446 all forest stands within one cell. Note that the AWP axes are scaled differently between the ecoregions (d-f). All  
 447 other ecoregions, maximum value and standard deviation per property you can find in the Appendix (Figures A5  
 448 – A7).  
 449

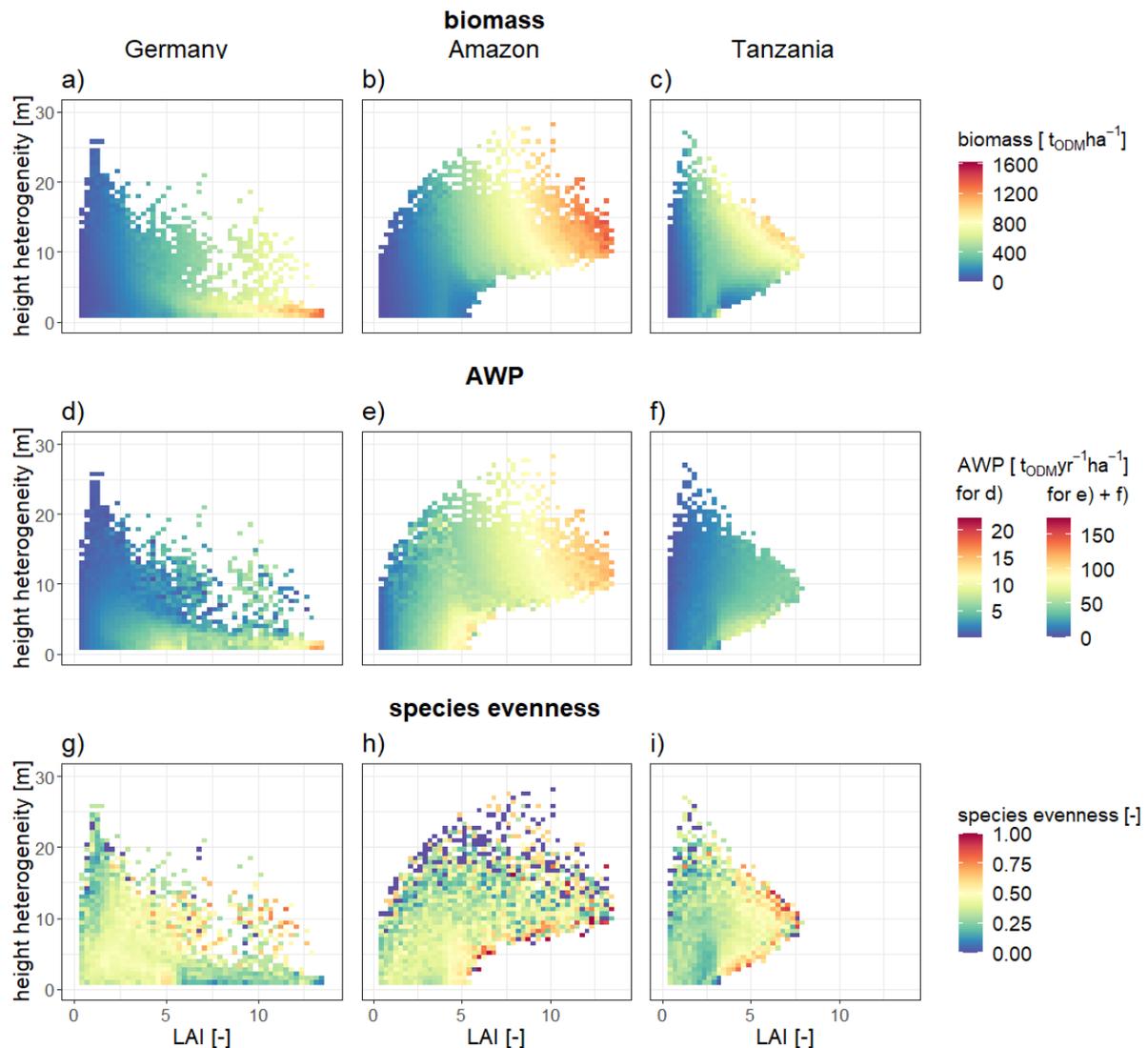
450 In all three regions, we observe that AWP increases with the basal area and decreases with  
 451 maximum height, while shape and strength of the combined effects are region-specific. Also,  
 452 the range of AWP values differs due to climate variations between the temperate (Germany,  
 453 Fig. 4d) and the tropic regions (Fig. 4: e, f), which leads to lower AWP values for the German  
 454 forest stands. Nevertheless, we observe that for Germany (Fig. 4a) and the Amazon (Fig. 4b),  
 455 forest stands with high AWP have a high maximum height and basal area. In all three

456 ecoregions, there occur also forest stands with high AWP values that have only moderate basal  
 457 area and height.

458

459 Concerning the evenness of species, forest stands (Fig. 4: g, h, i) show a similar structure-  
 460 function relationship for the Amazon (Fig. 4h) and Tanzania (Fig. 4i). Species evenness is  
 461 increasing with basal area but decreasing with maximum height. For the temperate forests in  
 462 Germany (Fig. 4g), the situation is more intricate. Forest stands between low and medium  
 463 maximum height (0 m - 35 m) and with medium basal area have high evenness values.

464



465

466

467 **Figure 5:** Relationship between structural properties (LAI and tree height heterogeneity) and biomass (a-c),  
 468 above-ground productivity (d-f) and evenness (g-i) for the generated forests for three selected ecoregions  
 469 (Germany, Amazon, Tanzania). The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean value of the investigated  
 470 property of all forest stands within one cell. Note that the AWP axes are scaled differently between the ecoregions  
 471 (d-f). All other ecoregions, maximum value and standard deviation per property you can find in the Appendix  
 472 (Figures A8 – A10).

473

474 In a second step, we analyzed how two other structural properties (here: height heterogeneity  
475 and LAI) affect the functional characteristics of forest stands for the three investigated  
476 ecoregions (Fig. 5).

477 In all cases, forest stands with large biomass values (Fig. 5: a, b, c) can only be found if the  
478 LAI is high. Additionally, in the Amazon and Tanzania, these forest stands also need height  
479 heterogeneity values above 8 m.

480 We also analyzed forest productivity (Fig. 5: d, e, f). Forest stands with high AWP values have  
481 one pattern in common. High productivity goes along with low height heterogeneity and  
482 medium LAI in the Amazon and Tanzania ( $4-7 t_{odm} yr^{-1} ha^{-1}$ ) and high LAI in Germany ( $5-13 t_{odm} yr^{-1} ha^{-1}$ ). Lower AWP values of forest stands in Germany can be explained by the  
484 shorter vegetation period. In contrast to the other ecoregions for the forests in the Amazon, we  
485 also observe highly productive forests with large LAI ( $>10$ ) and high height heterogeneity ( $>10$   
486 m), analogous to the biomass.

487 For Germany, it is remarkable that we observe only a few forest stands with medium height  
488 heterogeneity (6 m - 10 m) and medium LAI (2-10). Forest stands with these properties have  
489 low AWP values. These forests are next to an area in the state space without forest stands  
490 (white area), possibly due to the negative productivity of trees.

491 For species evenness (Fig. 5: g, h, i), we got no clear trends (like in the first and second row).  
492 Above a certain LAI ( $>3$ ), we find Tanzanian forests with high species evenness (0.5 - 1). The  
493 highest evenness values ( $>0.7$ ) can be found at the outer edge of the envelope.

494 The analysis of biomass, AWP and species evenness in German forests (Fig. 5: a, d, g) shows  
495 that forests with height heterogeneity smaller than 3 m and LAI larger than 6 have on average  
496 a lower evenness, besides all these forests have a high biomass and a high productivity. Results  
497 for the standard deviation and maximal biomass values, productivity and species evenness can  
498 be found in the Appendix (in Fig. 5, we analyzed mean values; for details, see methods and  
499 Appendix Figures A8 – A10).

500

### 501 **3.3 Comparison of structure function relationships for different ecoregions**

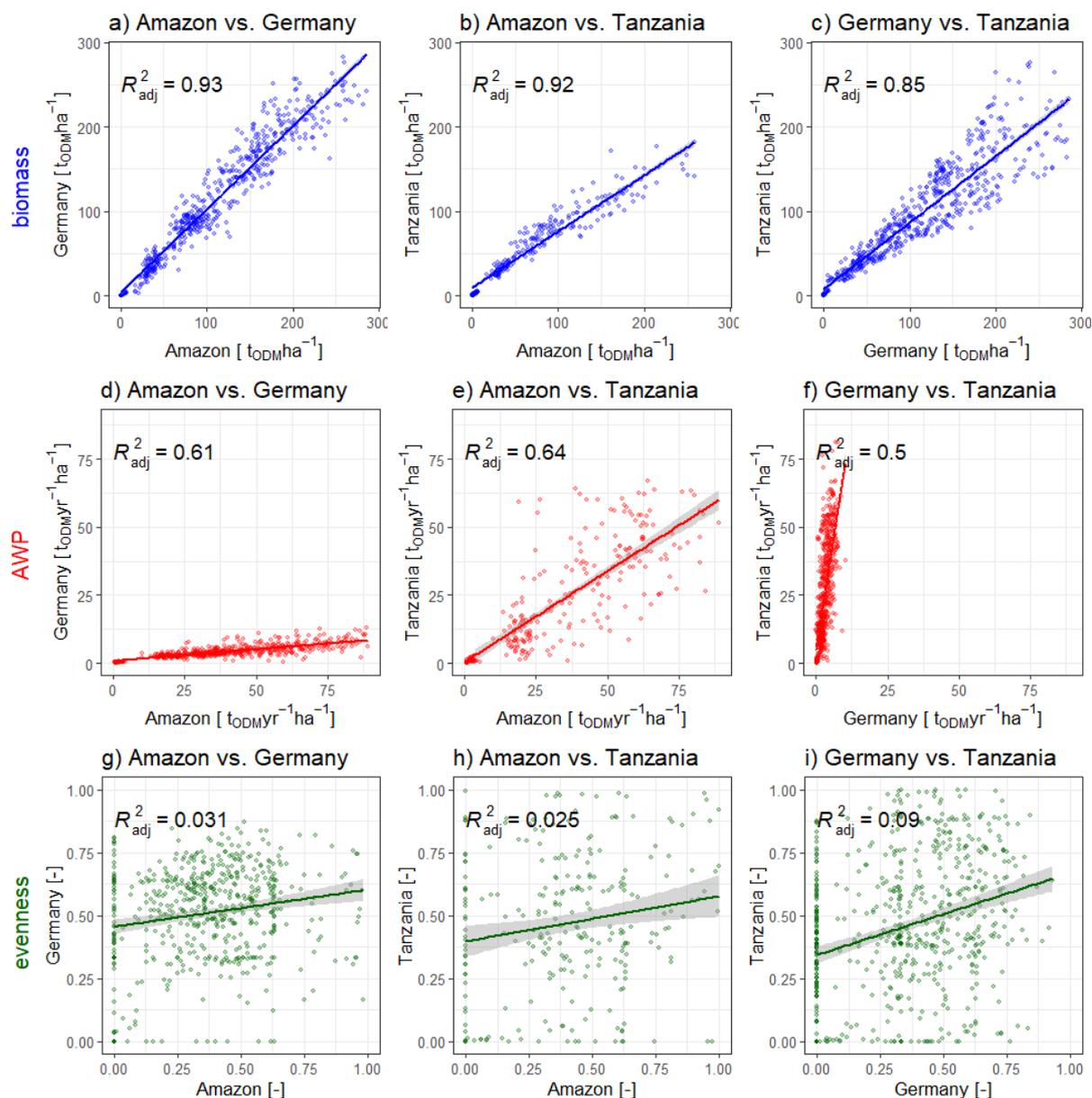
502

503 In the previous Sections, we examined structure-function relationships for different ecoregions.  
504 Here, we directly compare the structure-function relationships for three ecoregions  
505 (Amazonian, German and Tanzanian forests) to explore how generally the derived  
506 relationships apply (for comparisons for all ecoregions see Appendix Figures A11 - A13).  
507 Specifically, we compare mean biomasses (blue points in Fig. 6: a, b, c), mean AWP (red  
508 points in Fig. 6: d, e, f) and mean species evennesses (green points in Fig. 6: g, h, i) of forest  
509 stands that have similar states (according to the four structural properties used in the Figures  
510 above) but are from different regions. We show them in 1:1 graphs. We consider forest states  
511 as similar if they have similar maximal height, height heterogeneity, LAI and basal area (details  
512 in Section 2.4.).

513 We observe a strong correlation for the biomass (high  $R^2$  value). The biomass of forest stands  
514 with similar properties are not identical (not on the 1:1 line).

515 For the AWP (Figure 6: d, e, f), we see a good correlation. The four structural dimensions are  
516 sufficient to find relations between AWP for different regions but less effective than between  
517 the biomass.

518 We see no correlation in the evenness relationships for the different regions (Figure 6: g, h, i).  
 519 That indicates that we may need more information in addition to structural properties to get a  
 520 better correlation.  
 521



522  
 523

524 **Figure 6:** Comparison of biomass, aboveground productivity and species evenness derived from forests with a  
 525 similar state space (by a 2% quantile of the four structural properties LAI, basal area, tree height heterogeneity  
 526 and maximum tree height). Each graph compares forest stands out of two ecoregions. We show the pairwise  
 527 comparisons for three illustrative ecoregions. Each point represents the mean values of the investigated functional  
 528 characteristics.

529

#### 530 4. Discussion

531

532 In this paper, we explored the Forest Factory 2.0 a new open source software tool to simulate  
 533 and analyze forests from different biomes on earth. We demonstrated several benefits of the

534 approach and provide insights into how this method can increase our knowledge on structure-  
535 function relationships of forests and overall forest functioning. Breaking with the tradition of  
536 investigating the development of individual forest stands over time, we used the Forest Factory  
537 2.0 as a tool to gain knowledge about forests by analyzing the state space of forests, resulting  
538 from species pool and environmental factors.

539

540 The simple algorithm of the Forest Factory allows comparison of a large number of forest  
541 stands from different biomes (3 million forest stands per hour) generated with the same process-  
542 driven architecture. This also provides a causal understanding of forest structure-function  
543 relationships (as we showed in Section 3). In this manuscript, we present a method to  
544 investigate the relationship between structure (maximum height, basal area, LAI, height  
545 heterogeneity) and productivity (biomass and AWP) or biodiversity (species evenness) of  
546 forests. With the Forest Factory 2.0, it is also possible to analyze other forest properties, such  
547 as diameter increment or net ecosystem exchange. Additionally, it enables us to explore the  
548 role of other more complex structural characteristics like stem size distribution or height-layer-  
549 specific information. With this systematic approach we could investigate the causes of the  
550 differences and similarities of forest stands e.g. why forests with similar structure show  
551 different or similar biomass or productivity values. This could allow us to calculate transfer  
552 functions for structure-function relationships of forests from one ecoregion to another (outlined  
553 in Section 3.3). Here, we generated forest datasets for seven forest regions to illustrate the  
554 approach. It is also possible to use other parameterizations from other forest models to generate  
555 forests for additional regions.

556

557 With this approach it is not only possible to create forests that already exist but also could  
558 occur. Using the Forest Factory 2.0 to create forest states beyond the currently existing ones  
559 provides a fuller understanding of forests beyond the constraints of empirical data such as  
560 national forest inventories or remote sensing data. Some of these forest states may be due to  
561 current changes in disturbance regimes or management, and for some forest states it may not  
562 even be clear which successional or disturbance pathways will lead to them. In addition to the  
563 promising research area of realistic forest selection, it is also interesting to study forests that  
564 have almost no or even negative productivity. This analysis can be used to identify stressed  
565 forest stands (in forest inventories) or generally describe and understand the state space of  
566 stressed forests. This might help to detect potential regime shifts and to explore adaptive  
567 capacities of forests and forest ecosystems. As seen in Figure 3d, there are forests with medium  
568 height heterogeneity and LAI that have low productivity. These forests are next to an area in  
569 the state space without forest stands (white area). White areas may indicate that forest stands  
570 in this area of the state space have negative productivity. Such forests are not generated by the  
571 algorithm due to the productivity condition. Further analysis could reveal if this white area  
572 represents a transition from forests with low positive to forests with negative productivity. This  
573 area in the state space could give information on the limits of coping capacity of forest stands.  
574 If this were the case, these forests could change from being a carbon sink to being a carbon  
575 source.

576

577 In this study we presented how the Forest Factory 2.0 can be used to study region-specific  
578 patterns and the ecological mechanisms behind them. Every forest stand consists of many  
579 individual trees that are modeled by the selected forest model (here FORMIND). For each  
580 single tree, additional information is available (data product of the Forest Factory 2.0). This  
581 allows the analysis of specific forest attributes by analyzing the productivity or other properties  
582 of each tree in the forest, hence yielding a deeper understanding of forest dynamics. The Forest  
583 Factory 2.0 also offers the possibility for jointly addressing research questions from community  
584 ecology (organismal aspects, diversity of species and structure) to ecosystem ecology (matter  
585 and energy flux aspects, biogeochemical cycles) (Loreau 2010).

586

587 For making Forest Factory 2.0 easier to use for different user groups it might be useful to  
588 generate forests with only certain tree species for user groups that want to generate lidar data  
589 with Forest Factory 2.0. At the moment, forests with certain tree species can of course be sorted  
590 out of the data product or generated by changing the parameterization. Possible tree species  
591 should be selected during the initialization of Forest Factory 2.0. Perhaps users only want to  
592 study multilayer forests, so it would be interesting to allow other height distributions that make  
593 these forests more likely (e.g., bimodal height distributions), even if they already exist in the  
594 data product. Another direction would be to allow different spatial resolutions for Forest  
595 Factory 2.0 if users want to create larger contiguous forests without filtering and rearranging  
596 the ones already generated. An additional extension could be to allow different mechanisms  
597 for tree placement. It would be possible to remove trees in the virtual forest stands to mimic  
598 interventions. Also, we could implement mechanisms which guarantee a denser packing of  
599 forest stands and may widen the envelopes in Figure 3. Nevertheless, the presented envelopes  
600 show that we can already cover a broad range of different forest structures with the current  
601 approach.

602

603 Furthermore, the coupling of the Forest Factory with other modules of FORMIND allows us  
604 to explore additional properties and characteristics of the generated forest, for example to  
605 derive typical remote sensing data and indexes based on radiative transfer models. For instance,  
606 Bruening et al. (2021) use the Forest Factory 2.0 to explore the relationship between lidar  
607 profiles and aboveground biomass. It is also possible to combine radiative transfer models with  
608 the Forest Factory 2.0 to generate reflection spectra for a huge number of forest stands. Virtual  
609 forests are also used in studies by the remote sensing community (Frazer et al. 2005, Frazer et  
610 al. 2011, Widlowski et al. 2015). In addition to the typical remote sensing forest variables (point  
611 clouds, lidar profiles), the generated forests allow the calculation of additional properties (basal  
612 area, LAI, AWP, net ecosystem exchange) also at the tree level. Thus, the presented approach  
613 can help to downscale the satellite-imagery-based data and to translate the remote sensing  
614 measurements available for large areas to the level of individual trees.

615

616 It is also possible to combine the Forest Factory 2.0 approach with other forest models. The  
617 new approach of looking at forests in terms of states rather than simulations over time, along  
618 with Forest Factory 2.0's free coupling possibility, offers a promising path to compare forest  
619 models and learn more about their capabilities and limitations. Specifically, it opens up the  
620 possibility of using different forest models to generate different databases of forest stands, as

621 shown in this study with FORMIND, and then analyzing these comparatively using the  
622 methods presented. In addition to the possibility of combining the Forest Factory 2.0 with other  
623 forest models, the Forest Factory 2.0 is also an additional test for parameterizations. We can  
624 analyze forests that cannot be created by the forest succession for which the parameterization  
625 was made. These forests may be possible under different environmental conditions (like  
626 climate change) or due to disturbances (e.g. fallen trees).

627

628 Another possible application is the use of generated forest stands to initialize models simulating  
629 forest development (for different forest models) over a longer period of time. With this  
630 application it is possible e.g. to analyze the further behavior of these forests under climate  
631 change or management scenarios (natural extinction processes or implementation of new  
632 species). Again, the advantage is that we can simulate forests with states beyond those that  
633 currently exist and gain information that we cannot obtain from inventory or remote sensing  
634 observations. With forest models we can analyze the development of these forest stands which  
635 allows new ways of analysis. For example, we can explore forest states that are more resilient  
636 to climate change and should be pursued in forest management.

637

638 The presented way of analyzing forests in a digital universe of processes and mechanisms also  
639 offers new possibilities for data scientists. The freely available datasets of generated forest  
640 stands can be used to train artificial intelligence (AI) that estimates additional forest/tree  
641 attributes from just a few attributes of forest stands. The resulting relationships could be used  
642 to gain a deeper understanding at the level of individual trees from large-scale remote sensing  
643 observations. In addition, all relationships shown in the graphs and the data product could be  
644 condensed into equations by AIs.

645

646 With the Forest Factory 2.0, researchers can generate virtual forests for their needs or use the  
647 open-source forest data to analyze a digital forest universe of forest states.

648

649 *Data accessibility.* The method and dataset supporting this article has been uploaded to the R  
650 repository: <https://git.ufz.de/angermue/forestfactory>.

651 *Authors' contributions.* H.H., A.H., K.F. and F.J.B. conceived of the study. A.H. and H.H.  
652 supervised the research. H.H. implemented and analysed the simulation model. F.J.B. provided  
653 guidance and technical support. All authors contributed to the interpretation of the results.  
654 H.H., A.H. and F.J.B developed the first draft of the manuscript. All Co-Authors reviewed and  
655 edited the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for publication.

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665 **LITERATURE**

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870 **APPENDIX**871 **I. Additional information for method Section**872 **1. Pre-defined forest stand attributes**

873

874 For each forest stand we select a minimum and maximum tree height  $h_{min}$  and  $h_{max}$  (a), a  
875 species pool (b) and a total crown volume of trees (c).

876 The Forest Factory 2.0 receives as an initial input a minimum and maximum height of the trees  
877  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$  (this applies to all trees in all forest stands). From the range of  $H_{min}$  and  $H_{max}$   
878 a forest stand specific  $h_{min}$  and  $h_{max}$  (a) is chosen randomly for each forest stand. We assume  
879 an equally distributed probability distribution in the mentioned range.

880 The parameterization of each ecoregion defines the total species pool for Forest Factory 2.0.  
881 For each forest stand, a forest stand-specific species pool (b) is chosen. For this purpose, a  
882 number between 1 and the number of species in the total species pool is chosen uniformly  
883 distributed. It determines how many species the forest stand-specific species pool should  
884 contain. Each species has an equal probability of being included in the forest stand-specific  
885 species pool until the next to last species (selected number of species -1) is selected. To ensure  
886 that it is possible to plant trees within the selected height range between  $h_{min}$  and  $h_{max}$  (which  
887 is different for each forest stand) we check whether at least one of the species selected so far  
888 has a maximum attainable height greater than or equal to  $h_{max}$ . If this is not the case, the last  
889 species is selected so that a tree with  $h_{max}$  could be placed. Forest Factory 2.0 receives as input  
890 also a maximum total crown volume. This total crown volume can be seen as a kind of crown  
891 density (proportion of crown volume to forest stand volume). None of the generated forest  
892 stands have a total crown volume above this input value. For each forest stand, between 0 and  
893 the maximum total crown volume, a forest stand specific maximum total crown volume (c) is  
894 randomly chosen, assuming an equal probability distribution.

895

896 **2. Normalized Shannon Index**

897

898 The Shannon Index  $H$  (Shannon 1948) and the species evenness  $E_H$  (Shannon equitability  
899 Index by Heip 1974, Peet 1975) is calculated by:

$$900 \quad H = \sum_{i=1}^S p_i \cdot \ln p_i$$

$$901 \quad E_H = \frac{H}{\ln S}$$

902

903 with  $p_i$ ...Proportion of trees of species  $i$  in the total number of trees  
904  $S$ ...Set of all species in the initial species pool derived by the  
905 parameterization of the ecoregion (we treat pfts as species here)

906

907 **3. Information about data product**

908

Region	Number Forest Stands	Total number of Trees	# of pfts	mean basal area [ $m^2 ha^{-1}$ ]	max basal area [ $m^2 ha^{-1}$ ]	mean biomass [ $t_{odm} ha^{-1}$ ]	max biomass [ $t_{odm} ha^{-1}$ ]
Amazon	100 000	1,379,989	3	26.5	99.3	272	1430
Panama	100 000	611,013	4	15.6	57.6	166.3	752

Germany	100 000	1,258,893	8	26.5	99.8	163.7	1462
US	100 000	816,839	9	41.4	99.9	383.7	1623
Ecuador	100 000	3,851,850	7	20.7	37.5	116.9	228
Malaysia	100 000	1,623,988	4	19.9	67.2	269.9	1067
Tanzania	100 000	1,222,930	6	32.8	99.7	300.6	1091

909  
 910 **Table A1:** Description of the Data product of 700 000 forests stands from 7 different ecoregions. Each forest  
 911 patch has an area of 20m x 20m. The total number of trees is accumulated over all forest stands from one  
 912 ecoregion. The species mix is described through the number of pft's. In addition, the mean and maximum values  
 913 of basal Area and biomass are shown.

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#### 916 4. Reduced climate information

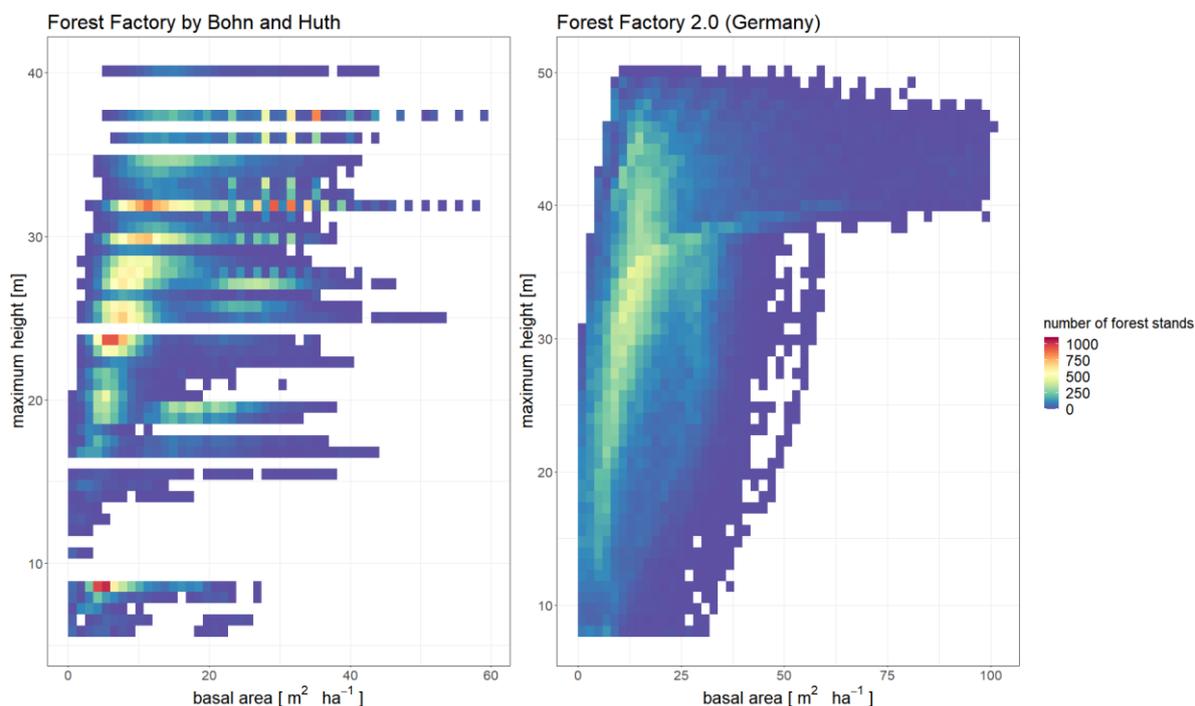
917  
 918 The climate information for Hainich climate (Germany) includes daily temperature values,  
 919 radiation values and precipitation values. In the case of reduced climate information, other  
 920 values are used for productivity calculation: mean yearly light intensity above canopy during  
 921 day-length, length of daily photosynthetic active period, i.e. day-length, relative length of wet  
 922 and dry season. More information about these variables can be found in respective studies and  
 923 parameterizations (see main text Table 2).

924

#### 925 5. Realization of envelopes in R

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 927 For the analysis of the state space of forests with the help of envelopes we use the function  
 928 `geom_mark_hull` of the R package `R/mark_hull.R`. It uses the package `concaveman`  
 929 (<https://github.com/mapbox/concaveman>) which allows to adjust concavity of the resulting  
 930 hull. We choose the following parameters: `con. Cap = 0` and `concavity = 2`.

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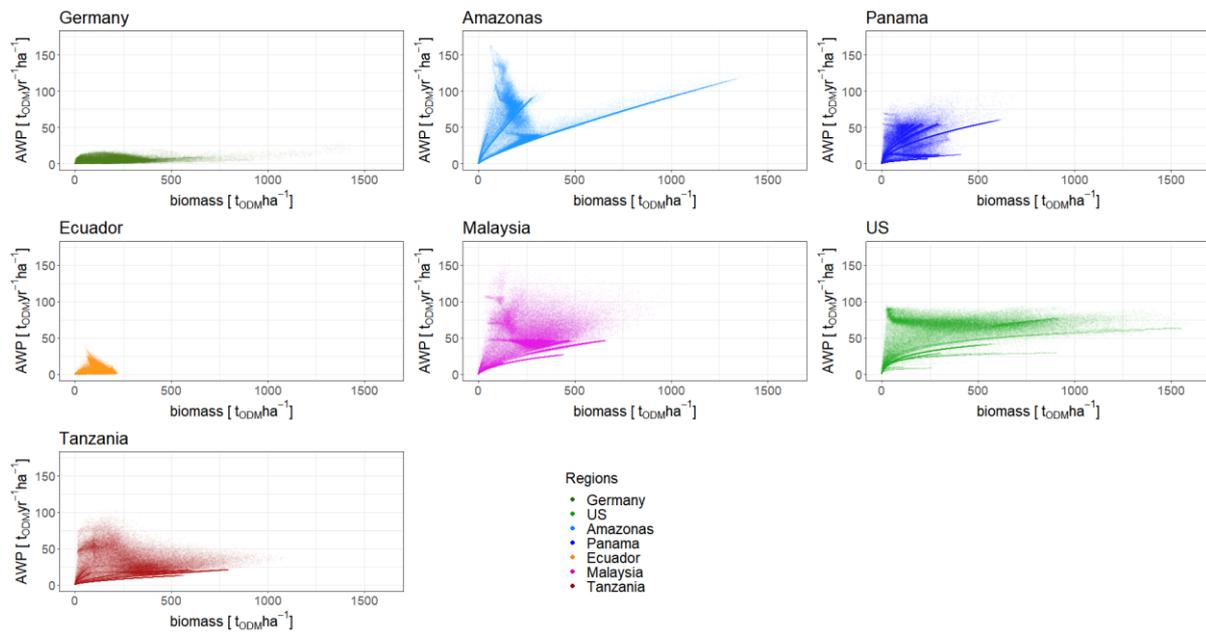
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**Figure A1: Comparison of Forest Factory by Bohn and Huth and Forest Factory 2.0.** Distribution of forest properties for the generated forests of the Forest Factory by Bohn and Huth (2017) (left) and Forest Factory 2.0 (right). We used here as structural properties basal area and maximum height per forest stand. The color of each cell in the graph represents the number of forest stands with the respective value of the properties.

939 **II. Additional results for biomass, productivity and species evenness of forest stands**

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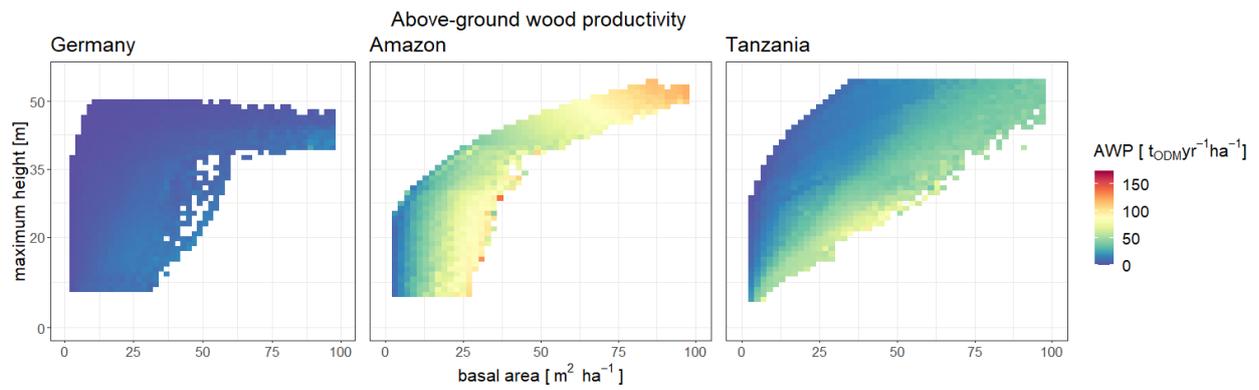
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943 **Figure A2: Relationship between biomass and above-ground productivity for analyzed ecoregions.** Each

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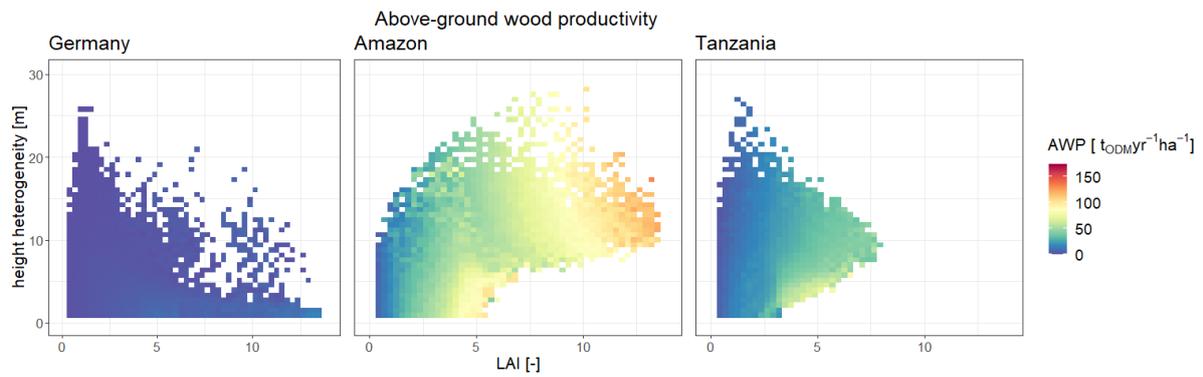
point represents a forest stand in the respective ecoregion (100,000 per ecoregion).

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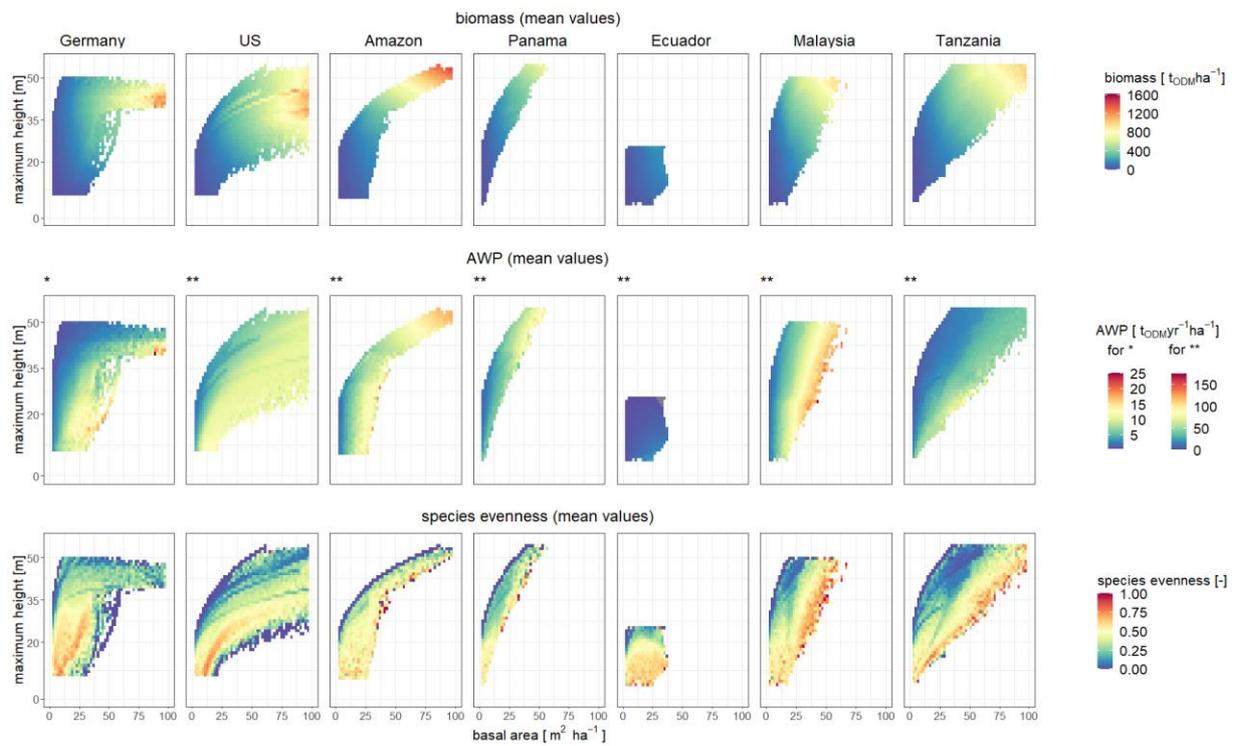
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948 **Figure A3: Relationship between structural properties and above-ground wood productivity.** We analyzed  
949 here structural properties (basal area and maximum height per forest stand) and above-ground productivity for  
950 three selected ecoregions (Germany, Amazon, Tanzania). The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean  
951 value of the AWP of all forest stands within one cell. In difference to Figure 2 (main text), we use for AWP always  
952 the same color legend (for all three ecoregions).  
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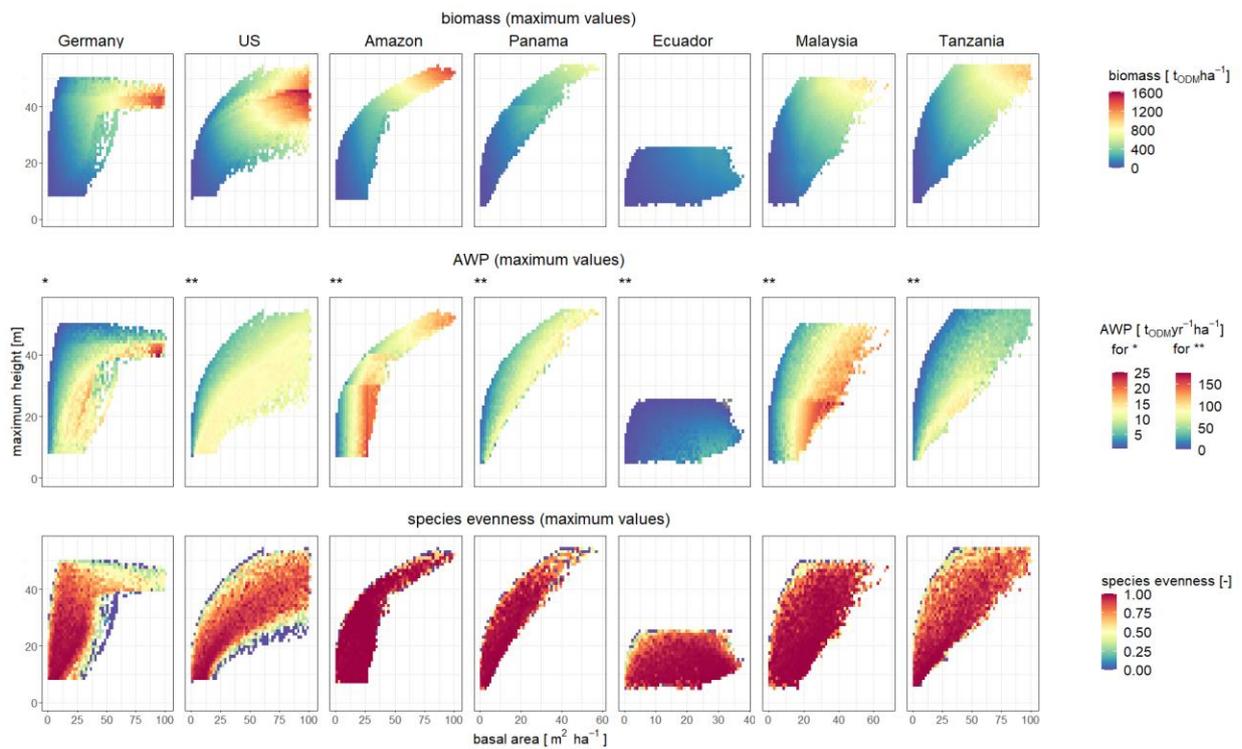


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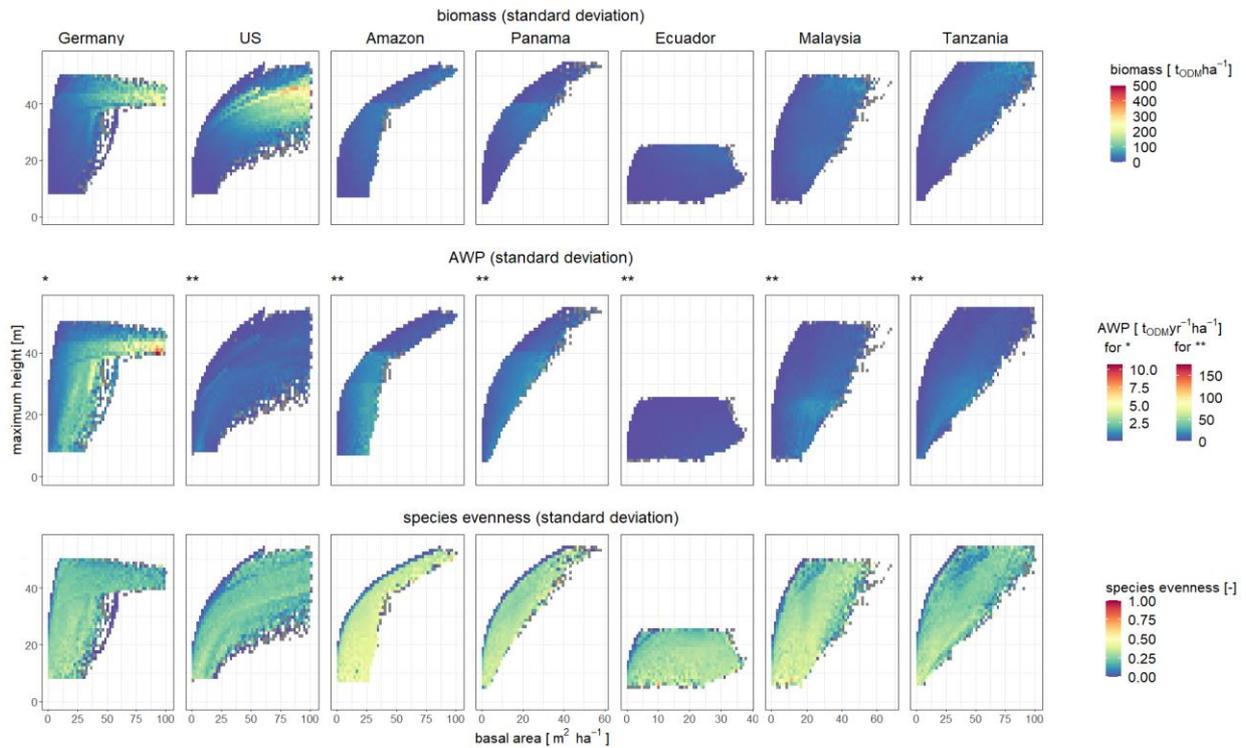
**Figure A4: Relationship between structural properties and above-ground wood productivity.** We analyzed here structural properties (height heterogeneity and LAI per forest stand) and above-ground productivity for three selected ecoregions (Germany, Amazon, Tanzania). The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean value of the AWP of all forest stands within one cell. In difference to Figure 2 (main text), we use for AWP always the same color legend (for all three ecoregions).

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**Figure A5: Relationship between structural properties and functional characteristics of forest stands.** Relationship between structural properties (basal area and maximum height per forest stand) and biomass (first row), above-ground productivity (second row) and species evenness (third row) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean value of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell.

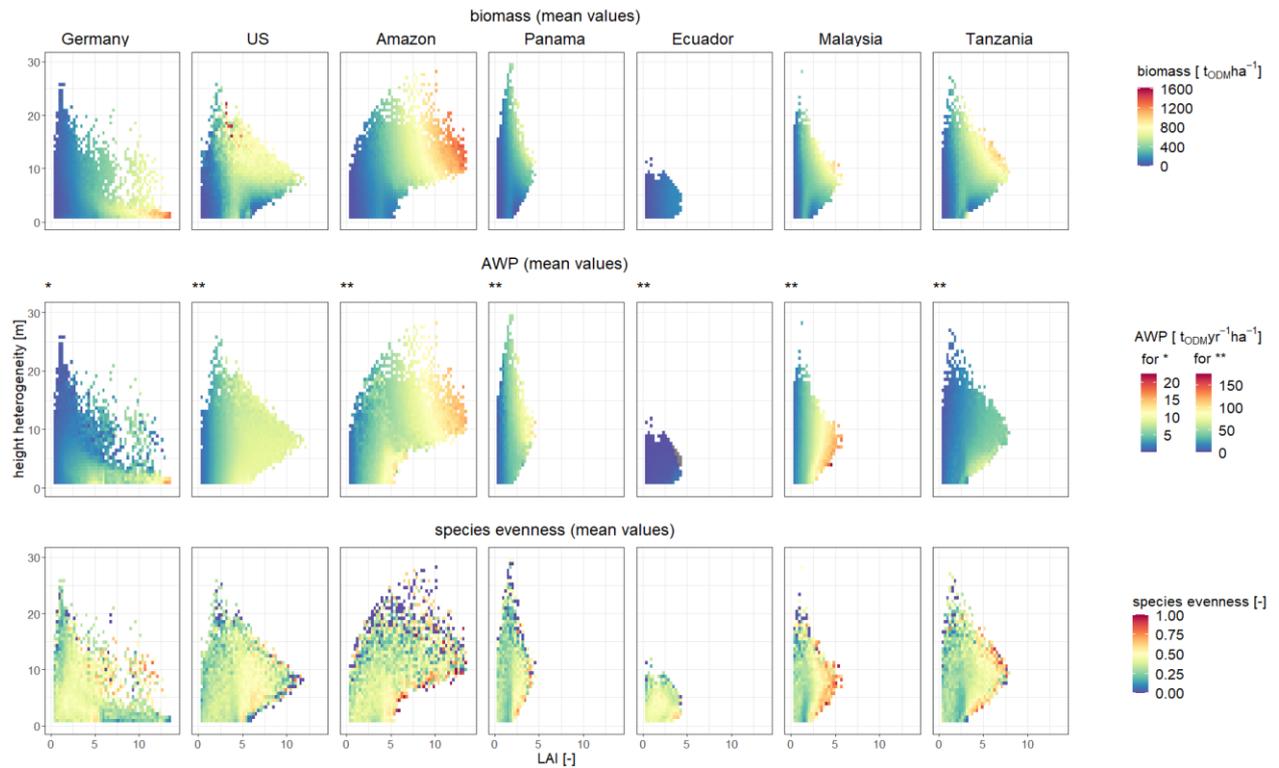
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**Figure A6: Maximum values of functional characteristics of forest stands.** Relationship between structural properties (basal area and maximum height per forest stand) and biomass (a-g), above-ground productivity (h-n) and species evenness (o-u) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the maximum value of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell.



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**Figure A7: Standard deviation of functional characteristics of forest stands.** Relationship between structural properties (basal area and maximum height per forest stand) and biomass (a-g), above-ground productivity (h-n) and species evenness (o-u) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the standard deviation of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell. Cells consisting of only one forest stand has no standard deviation (grey color).

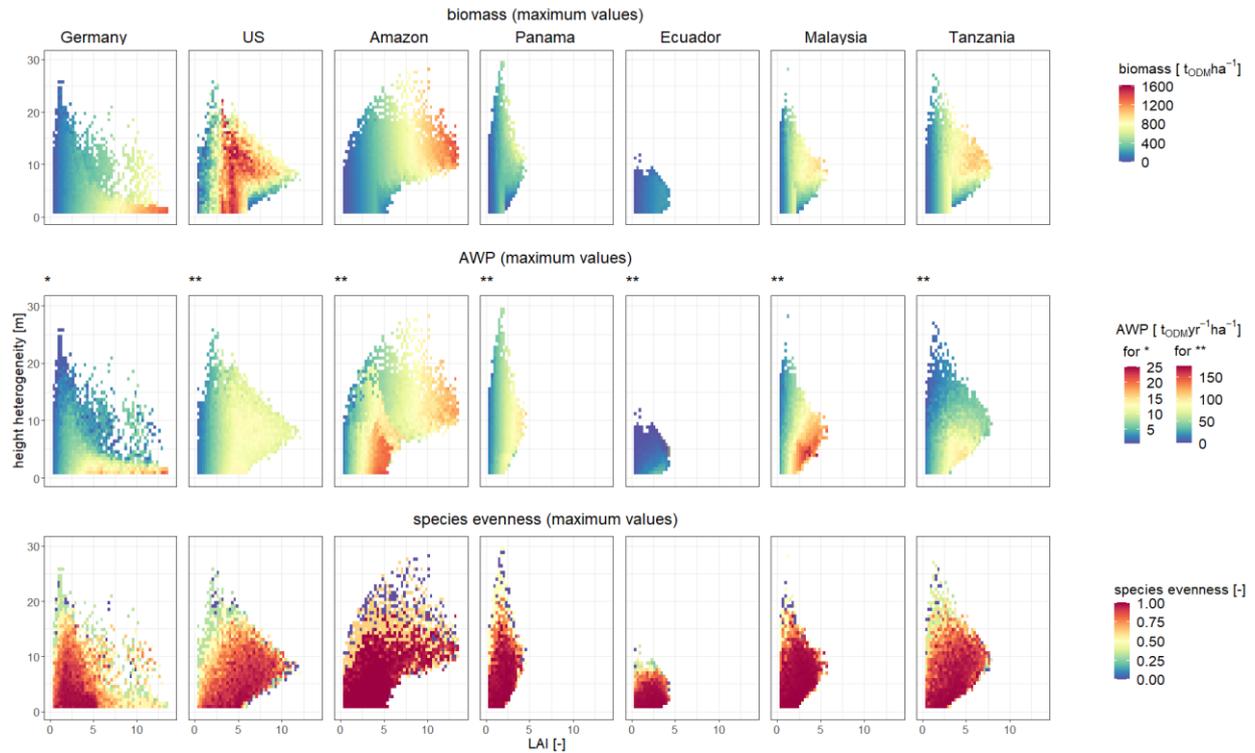


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**Figure A8: Relationship between structural properties and functional characteristics of forest stands.**

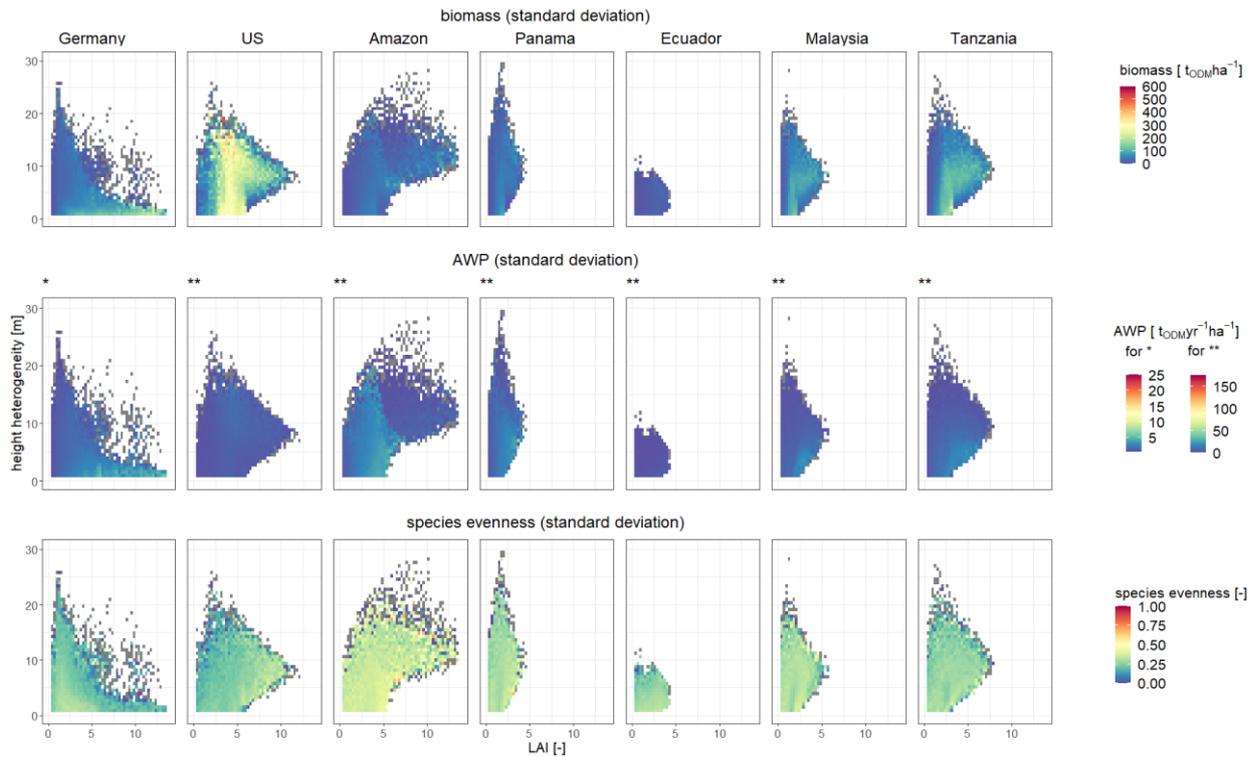
Relationship between structural properties (LAI and height heterogeneity per forest stand) and biomass (a-g), above-ground productivity (h-n) and species evenness (o-u) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the mean value of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell.

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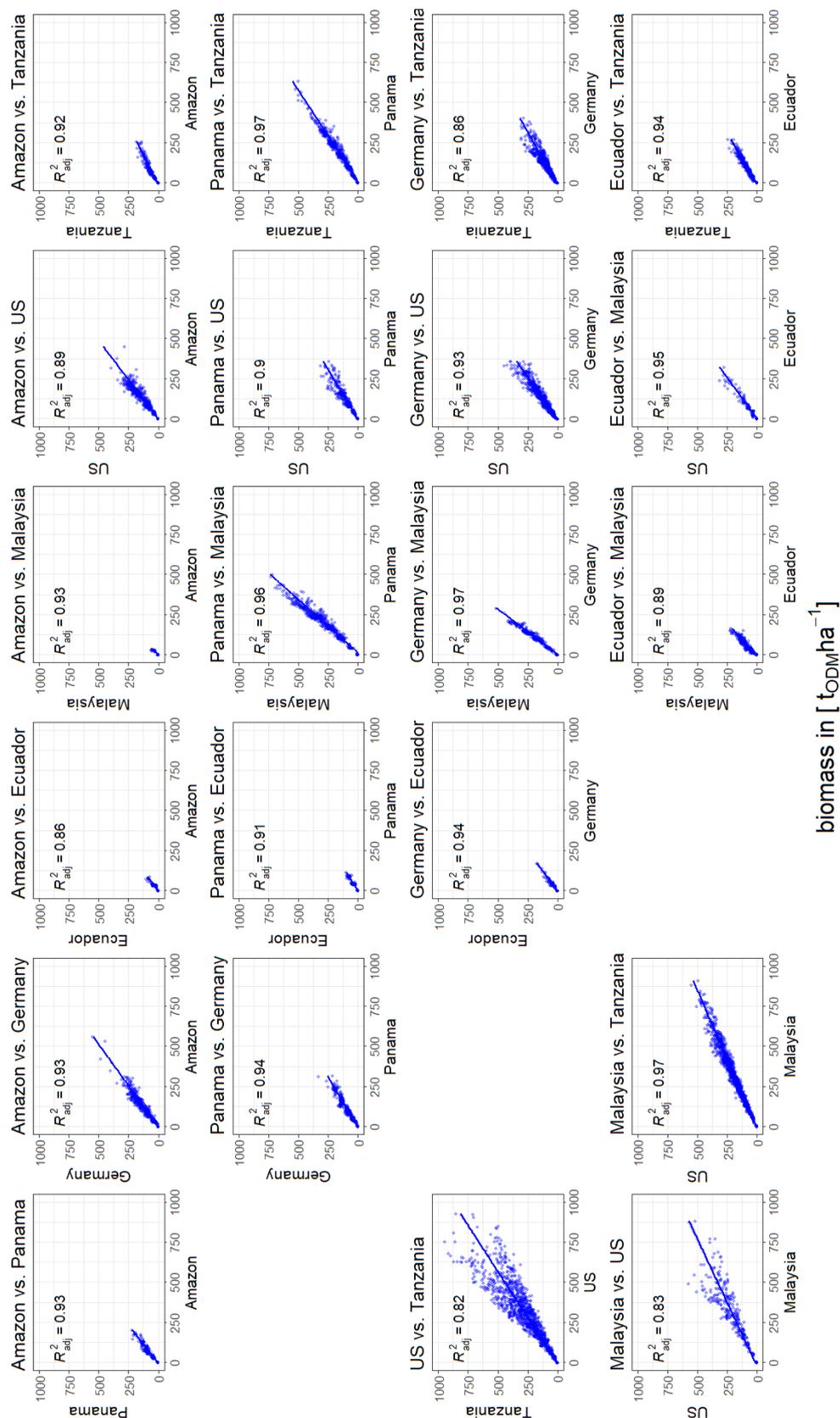
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**Figure A9: Maximum values of functional characteristics of forest stands.** Relationship between structural properties (LAI and height heterogeneity per forest stand) and biomass (a-g), above-ground productivity (h-n) and species evenness (o-u) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the maximum value of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell.



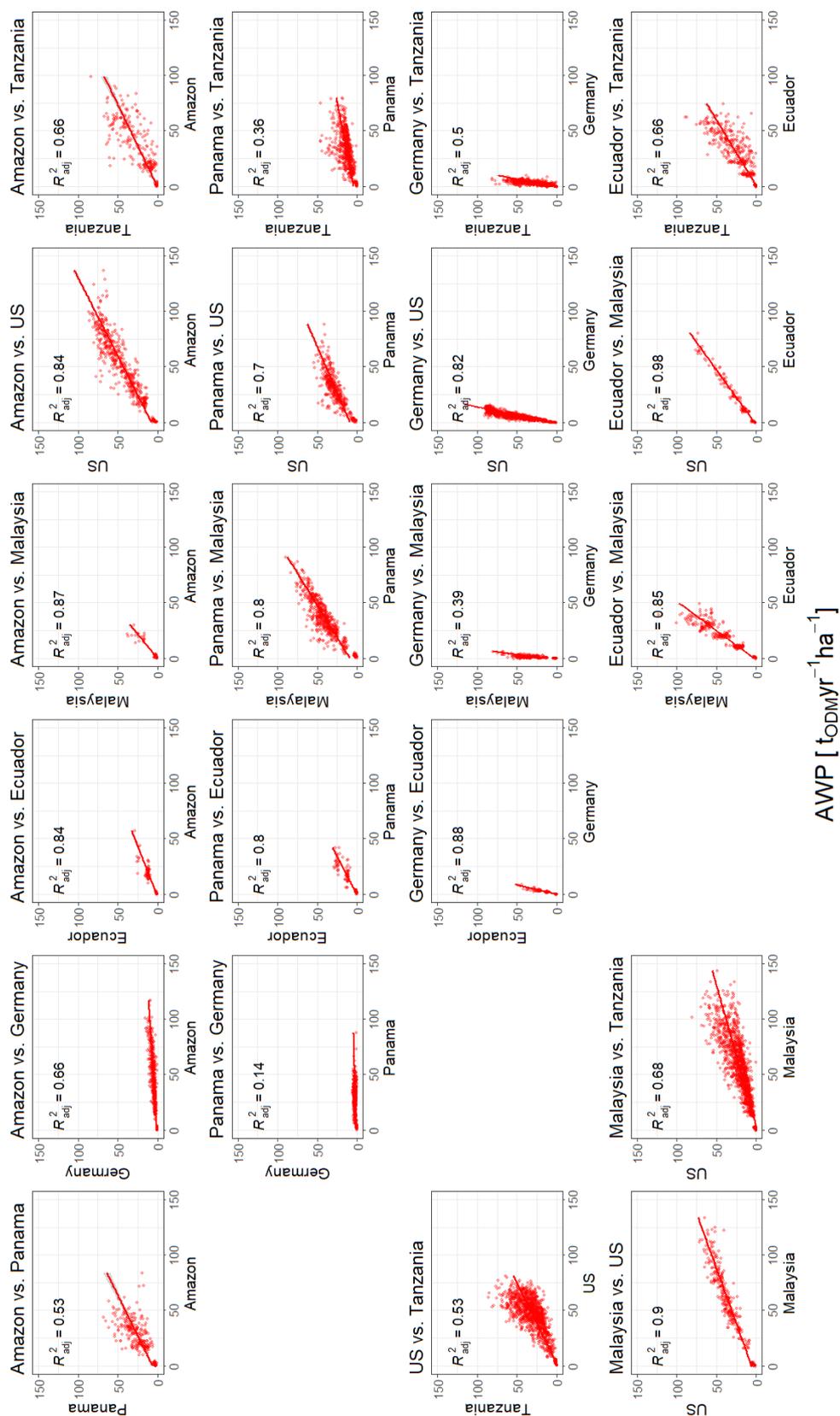
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**Figure A10: Standard deviation of functional characteristics of forest stands.** Relationship between structural properties (LAI and height heterogeneity per forest stand) and biomass (a-g), above-ground productivity (h-n) and species evenness (o-u) for all analyzed ecoregions. The color of each cell in the graph represents the standard deviation of the investigated property of all forest stands within one cell. Cells consisting of only one forest stand has no standard deviation (grey color).



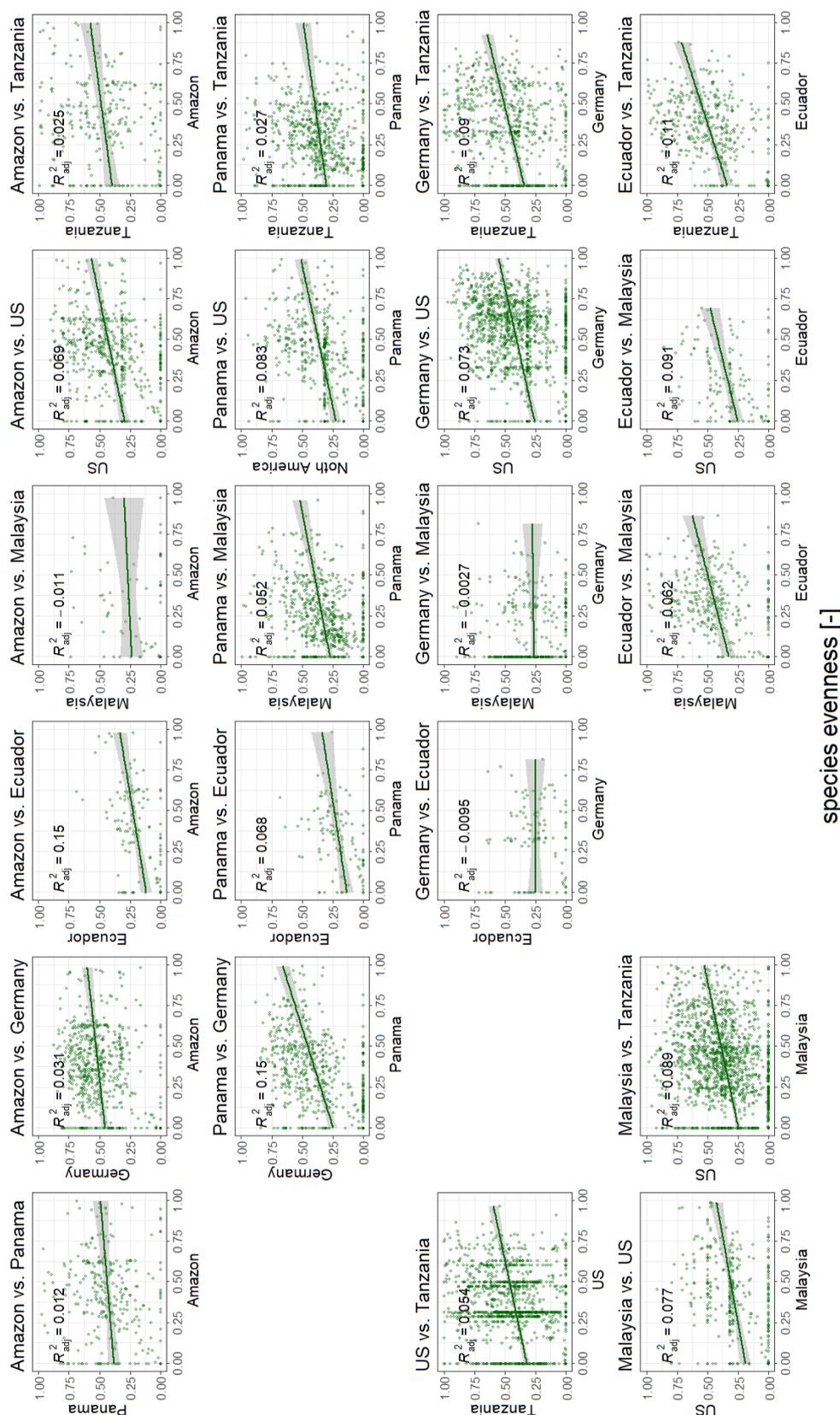
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**Figure A11: Comparison of biomass from different regions derived from forests with a similar state space** (by a 2% quantile of the four structural properties LAI, basal area, tree height heterogeneity and maximum tree height). Each graph compares forest stands out of two ecoregions. We show the pairwise comparisons for all ecoregions. Each point represents the mean values of biomass [ $t_{odm}ha^{-1}$ ] for both regions.



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**Figure A12: Comparison of aboveground productivity derived from forests with a similar state space (by a 2% quantile of the four structural properties LAI, basal area, tree height heterogeneity and maximum tree height).** Each graph compares forest stands out of two ecoregions. We show the pairwise comparisons for three illustrative ecoregions. Each point represents the mean values of AWP [ $t_{odm}yr^{-1}ha^{-1}$ ] for both regions.



species evenness [-]

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**Figure A13: Comparison of species evenness derived from forests with a similar state space** (by a 2% quantile of the four structural properties LAI, basal area, tree height heterogeneity and maximum tree height). Each graph compares forest stands out of two ecoregions. We show the pairwise comparisons for three illustrative ecoregions. Each point represents the mean values of species evenness [-] for both regions.