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1	Modelling sapling distribution over time using a functional predictor in a generalized additive model
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10	
11	Key message
12	The effect of adult trees on sapling density distribution during the regeneration fellings is determined in a
13	Pinus sylvestris L. Mediterranean forest using generalized additive models
14	
15	Abstract
16	Context: Spatial pattern of adult trees determines the number of new individuals after regeneration fellings,
17	which modify the light and air temperature under tree canopy.
18	Aims: We proposed a novel spatio-temporal model with a functional predictor in a generalized additive
19	model framework to describe non linear relationships between the size of the adult trees and the number of
20	saplings of Pinus sylvestris and to determine if the spatial pattern of the number of saplings remained
21	constant or changed in time.
22	Methods: In 2001, two plots (0.5 ha) were set up in two phases of regeneration fellings under the group
23	shelterwood method. We mapped the trees and saplings and measured their diameter and height. The
24	inventories were repeated in 2006, 2010 and 2014.
25	Results: We found a negative association between the diameter of adult trees and number of saplings up to
26	7-8 m. Beyond these distances, the diameter of adult trees was not associated with the number of saplings.
27	Our results indicate that the spatial pattern of the number of saplings remained quite constant in time.
28	Conclusions: The generalised additive models are a flexible tool to determine the distance range of
29	inhibition of saplings by adult trees.
30	

31 Keywords: edge effect; intra-specific competition; mountain forest; shade tolerance; Mediterranean areas

32

33 1 Introduction

34 Two main types of models can be used to explain or predict the renewal of a forest after 35 regeneration fellings, seed dispersion and germination: regeneration and recruitment models. The former is 36 related to the youngest individuals, seedlings, whereas the latter is related to larger stems, saplings, which 37 reach or exceed a nominal size limit determined by the researcher (Vanclay 1992; Eerikäinen et al. 2007; 38 Miina and Heinonen 2008). Since it is both difficult and expensive to obtain suitable data for modelling the 39 regeneration, recruitment is more often modelled than regeneration. Both processes are influenced by the 40 capacity of the soil to supply water and the amount of light that reaches the young seedlings. These are the 41 most important factors for success in the establishment of new individuals (Kozlowski 2002). Hence, the 42 summer drought in dry environments cause high mortality rates of seedlings over Mediterranean areas 43 (Castro et al. 2004; Pardos et al. 2007; McDowell et al. 2008), where the water is a limited resource in the 44 vegetative period.

45 Regeneration fellings can modify the effect of summer drought on seedlings and saplings by 46 setting different target densities or spacing between remaining trees and, thus, modify the shade and the air 47 temperature (Caccia and Ballaré 1998; Pardos et al. 2007). However, not all species can tolerate the same 48 amount of shade and the shade tolerance behavior may vary with site conditions (Kobe and Coates 1997; 49 Gómez-Aparicio et al. 2006). Additionally, the light requirement of plants varies with age. Indeed, the light 50 requirement increases faster with plant age in light-demanding species than in shade tolerant species 51 (Valladares and Niinemets 2008). This determines the density and spacing between remaining trees after 52 regeneration fellings. Therefore, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the effects of the density 53 of residual trees on new individuals over the regeneration period in order to ensure the spatial continuity of 54 the forest stand after the regeneration fellings.

In addition to the density and spacing between remaining trees after regeneration fellings, several features should be taken into account to model the number of saplings. The age of the stand should also be considered, particularly where shifts in the spatial relationship between trees and offspring over the stages of the forest renewal may occur (Wada and Ribbens 1997). Changes in spatial patterns of trees over time are determined by regeneration mechanisms, substrate characteristics, moisture and light availability as well as intra and inter specific competition (LeMay et al. 2009). Hence, the time perspective allows us to distinguish between competition and the initial spatial pattern of individuals (Wolf 2005; Getzin et al.
2006), i.e., the initial distribution of seedlings as a consequence of the dispersion and germination of the
seeds can vary with the development of the seedlings and competition for resources.

64 The spatial relationships between adult trees and new cohorts have previously been evaluated 65 using different approaches. The bivariate Ripley's K and related functions have been used to determine if 66 stems of two mapped cohorts of trees show spatial positive, negative or random association (see Montes 67 and Cañellas 2007; Wild et al. 2014) by testing the spatial independence between the two cohorts. Ledo et 68 al. (2014) used inhomogeneous Poisson process spatial models. These models allow the spatial distribution 69 of new individuals to be defined in function of attributes of adult trees. Other authors used distance-70 dependent influence indices (Contreras et al. 2011) and available light under the forest canopy or the global 71 site factor as explanatory variables in different models (Pardos et al. 2007; Moreno-Fernández et al. 2015a). 72 Distance-dependent influence indices determine, at a given point, the influence of the tree size (such as 73 diameter, height, or crown variables) and the distance between trees and the studied point whereas the 74 global site factor measures the amount of light at a given point by analyzing hemispherical photographs. 75 Influence indices and site factors can easily be entered in a time-dynamic model as additional variables 76 (Eerikäinen et al. 2007; Manso et al. 2013). However, the temporal modelling of Ripley's K and related 77 functions over time is complex. LeMay et al. (2009) investigated the evolution of these functions in the 78 regeneration of Pseudotsuga menziesii var glauca (Mirb.) Franco over time using a random coefficient 79 mixed model. Furthermore, specific distance dependent models implemented using packages such as 80 SILVA or SORTIE-ND have been used in forest development simulation studies which include the regeneration establishment phase (Hanewinkel and Pretzsch 2000; Ameztegui et al. 2015). These software 81 82 packages are compounded of several submodels for the biological processes operating at individual tree 83 level. Comas (2008) and Redenbach and Särkkä (2012) adapted the growth-interaction model proposed by 84 Renshaw and Särkkä (2001) to develop a spatio-temporal regeneration model under two regeneration 85 methods using values taken from the literature to estimate the parameters. This approach generates marked 86 point configurations changing over time.

67 Generalized additive models (GAMs) may describe a complex relationship between the response 688 and the predictors. This is especially useful in research fields such as ecology, biology or forestry in which 699 simple models cannot capture the structure of the data and more complex models may be required (Faraway 600 2006). Whereas GAMs have been used in different areas of forest science such as wood quality (Jordan et al. 2008), annual radial growth (Moreno-Fernández et al. 2014), mortality (Barbeito et al. 2012) or species
distribution (Franklin 1998), their use in regeneration or recruitment studies is relatively scarce (Rabasa et
al. 2013). Augustin et al. (2009) fit spatio-temporal models within a GAM framework to monitor forest
health data. However, these techniques have never been used to assess the dynamics of forest regeneration.

95 Pinus sylvestris L. is the most widely distributed pine species in the world (Mason and Alía 2000). 96 It can be found throughout Eurasia, stretching from Spain in the South-West to the far east of Russia 97 (Houston Durrant et al. 2016). This pine species is commonly considered to be a light-demanding species 98 in Central and northern Europe (Mátyás et al. 2003). However, it has a half-shade tolerant behavior in 99 southern locations like Spain (Montes and Cañellas 2007), partially due to the high temperatures and 100 drought conditions present during the summer months. Whereas during the early stages P. sylvestris 101 seedlings prefer moderate light conditions (Pardos et al. 2007; Barbeito et al. 2009), the later development 102 of saplings is inhibited by competition from the adult trees (Montes and Cañellas 2007). The variation on 103 shade tolerance and climate conditions across its distribution condition the regeneration method; while seed 104 tree and clear cutting are the main methods used in Central and Northern Europe, different alternatives of 105 the shelterwood method are commonly used in Southern Europe (Mason and Alía 2000). In general, 2 000 106 seedlings per hectare are considered to be a sufficient natural regeneration density (Rodríguez-García et al. 107 2010; Hyppönen et al. 2013).

108 In this work, we propose a methodology to describe non-linear relationships between the size of 109 the adult trees and number of saplings of *P. sylvestris* in Mediterranean mountains as a smooth function. 110 We carried it out analyzing data from repeated measurements of two large plots at two stages of the 111 regeneration period where all the stems were mapped. We modelled the spatio-temporal distribution of the 112 number of saplings using a functional predictor (see for example Wood 2011) in a GAM framework (Hastie 113 and Tibshirani 1989; Wood 2006). The functional predictor allowed us to weight the effect of every adult 114 tree on the number of saplings per quadrat based on the distance between adult trees and saplings. In 115 addition, the approach can deal with spatial correlation and a spatio-temporal trend, i.e. changes in the 116 spatial pattern of number of saplings during the development of the stand. In this regard, we fitted two 117 models with different spatio-temporal structures to determine if the spatial pattern of the number of saplings 118 remained constant or changed in time.

120 2 Material and methods

121 **2.1 Study area and data**

122 The study was carried out in a Scots pine forest (Pinar de Valsaín) located on the north facing 123 slopes of the Central Range of Spain (40° 49'N, 4° 01'W). The elevation ranges from 1200 to 1600 m, the 124 annual rainfall is about 1000 mm and the mean temperature is around 9.8 °C. Regeneration is achieved 125 using the group shelterwood method over a 40-year regeneration period. The regeneration fellings create 126 small gaps (0.1-0.2 ha) for the establishment of the regeneration. As regeneration appears, subsequent 127 harvests are carried out over the regeneration period to widen the gaps. The final fellings under the group 128 shelterwood method take place at 120-140 years but some legacy trees are left for biodiversity conservation 129 reasons at the end of the regeneration period.

130 In 2001, we set up a chronosequence of six plots (0.5 ha) covering all the rotation period (see 131 Moreno-Fernández et al. 2015b for details) to study the dynamics and structure in Mediterranean forests of 132 P. sylvestris. This chronosequence represents the management of P. sylvestris in the study area from the 133 beginning to the end of the rotation period (Fig. 1) and it contains six plots. The plots were as homogeneous 134 as possible in terms of altitude, exposure and site quality. Since we aim to address the influence of the adult 135 trees on the saplings, we selected two plots at different stages of the regeneration period: at an intermediate 136 stage of the regeneration period (100 x 50 m, Fig. 2, ca. 19-years-old) and at the end of the regeneration 137 period (58.82 x 85 m, Fig. 3, ca. 32-years-old). Young individuals with different size were spread over the 138 youngest studied plot. In this plot, regeneration fellings were done from 2010 to 2014 removing mainly 139 trees located in the corners of the plot (Fig. 2). At the end of the regeneration period, the arrival of new 140 individuals has almost been completed and the crown cover is getting closer. Additionally, some legacy 141 trees (larger trees) appear in this plot (Fig. 3). Another plot, at the first stages of the regeneration period, 142 was available. However, the arrival of new individuals has started as consequence of the natural dynamics 143 but the number of saplings was still quite low (Fig. 1). Therefore, we did not include this plot in the analysis. 144 At the time the plots were set up, we carried out the first inventory in which all the stems higher than 1.30 m were labelled individually and their diameter at breast height (dbh) and height were measured. 145 146 We numbered and classified the stems into: trees (dbh≥10 cm) and saplings (height≥1.30 m and dbh<10 147 cm). We distinguished two cohorts of trees: adult trees (dbh \geq 20 cm) and small trees (10 \leq dbh \leq 20 cm). We 148 mapped the position of every tree (adult and small trees) in each plot and additionally, we grouped the

saplings into a 2 x 2 m quadrat grid. The coordinates of the center of each quadrat were used to determine
the position of each quadrat. These measurements were repeated in 2006, 2010 and 2014.

151 In order to model the sapling distribution, we used the number of saplings per quadrat (Ns) in each 152 plot as response variable. We expected Ns to be highly related to the density of surrounding trees and 153 distance to the surrounding trees, as well as to the time since the beginning of the regeneration fellings. 154 However, the spatial dependence between the saplings and the two cohorts, adult and small trees, varies 155 over stand development (Montes and Cañellas 2007). Thus, we considered as predictors the dbh of the adult 156 trees (dbh≥20 cm), the distance in meters from adult tree to each sapling quadrat (considering all the adult 157 trees within a maximum radious of 30 m from each sapling quadrat; Montes and Cañellas 2007) and the 158 number of small trees (Nsmall; 10≤dbh<20 cm) surrounding every sampling quadrat within a radius of 10 159 m and the inventory year. The distribution of Ns, number of small and adult trees over inventories is shown 160 in Figs. 1, 2 and 3. We assume that at a given distance, larger dbh of the adult trees entails greater 161 competition between adult trees and saplings. Furthermore, we consider that this competition effect 162 between adult trees and Ns decreases with distance. Therefore, a model in which the coefficient of the dbh 163 depends on the distance between adult trees and the sapling quadrat would be very suitable. These 164 requirements can be taken into account using a linear functional predictor in a GAM. Thus, this approach 165 allowed us to weight the effect of every adult tree on the number of saplings per quadrat based on the 166 distance between adult trees and saplings.

167 **2.2 Edge effect correction**

The quadrats close to the boundaries of the plots are affected by the edge effect and this must be corrected (Ledo et al. 2014). Thus, the number of adult and small trees which surround a quadrat within 30 m and 10 m, respectively, can be underestimated because some of them may be located outside the plot (Goreaud and Pélissier 1999). Several authors (Lancaster and Downes 1998; Perry et al. 2006; Pommerening and Stoyan 2006) have investigated the edge effect and have analyzed the suitability of different edge-corrections for the calculation of the indices of spatial forest structure, Ripley's K and related second order functions.

In order to take account of the edge effect on the number of small and adult trees we used values per unit area, i.e., density. For each quadrat, we estimated the area of the 10 m radius circle within the plot (*AreaIn10* in m²). Therefore, *AreaIn10* changes with the distance between the quadrat and plot border, i.e, *AreaIn10* is smaller in the quadrats closer to the plot border. Then, we obtained the density of small trees as *Nsmall/AreaIn10*. We corrected the edge effect on adult trees by using the dbh density as *dbh/AreaIn30*.

180 AreaIn30 is the area (in m²) of the 30 m radius circle within the plot. Thus, we assume that the surrounding

- 181 shelter trees outside the plot would be of similar density than within the area. *AreaIn30* is the area (in m²)
- 182 of the 30 m radius circle within the plot.

183 2.3 Statistical analysis

184 For each of the two plots we modelled the expected number of saplings $E(Ns_{ij}) = \mu_{ij}$ in quadrat *i* 185 and *j*-th inventory (*j*=1,...,4) using the following GAM:

186
$$\log(\mu_{ij}) = \alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaInI0_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$$
(1)

187 with Ns_{ii} following a negative binomial distribution. This distribution is suitable for overdispersed counts such as those we are dealing with here. The variance function is $V(\mu_{ij}) = \mu_{ij} + \mu_{ij}^2 / \theta$, involving the extra 188 189 parameter θ to be estimated. The greater θ is, the more similar the negative binomial distribution is to the 190 Poisson distribution. Small values for θ indicate aggregation. The parameter α is the intercept of the model, 191 β is the unknown but estimable parameter of the number of small trees. *Dist_{in}* is a matrix which contains 192 the distances (in m) from the adult tree (n=1, ..., N) to the *i*-th quadrat, whereas dbh_{jn} is the matrix of the 193 dbh of the adult tree (n=1,...,N). When the distance of the *n*-th adult tree to the *i*-th quadrat was greater than 30 m, the *dbh* was set to 0. $\sum_{n=1}^{N} (f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot dbh_{jn} / AreaIn30_i)$ is functional predictor where $f_1(Dist_{in})$ is the 194 195 smooth coefficient of dbh_{in} . The function $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ is a spatial smooth term to account the spatial trend and 196 spatial correlation of the number of saplings. Any spatial trend will caused by other unmeasured 197 environmental variables and hence the spatial smooth term is a proxy for other unmeasured environmental 198 effects. X_i and Y_i are the coordinates of the *i*-th quadrat and *Time*_i is the temporal factor referred to the *j*-th

199 inventory.

Model 1 above separates the effects of space and time, i.e. the two effects are additive. The model can be made more flexible by allowing the spatial smooth to change in time, i.e., this model contains a spatial smooth per *j*-th inventory:

203
$$\log(\mu_{ij}) = \alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2^{j} \left(X_i, Y_i \right)$$
(2)

We used Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) to select the variables by using backward stepwise
 procedure and choosing the best spatio-temporal structure.

206 Functions f_1 and f_2 were represented using thin plate regression splines (Wood 2003). Thin plate 207 regression splines keep the basis and the penalty of the full thin plate splines (Duchon 1977) but the basis 208 is truncated to obtain low rank smoothers. This avoids the problems of the knot placement of the regression 209 splines and reduces the computational requirements of the smoothing splines (Wood 2003). Penalized 210 regression smoothers such as thin plate regression splines are computationally efficient because their basis 211 have a relatively modest size, k. In practice, k determines the upper limit on the degrees of freedom 212 associated with the smooth function, hence k must be chosen when fitting models. However, the actual 213 effective degrees of freedom of the smooth function are controlled by the degree of penalization selected 214 during fitting. The degree of penalization determines how smooth the function is. So, k should be chosen 215 to be large enough to represent the underlying process reasonably well, but small enough to ensure 216 reasonable computational efficiency. The exact choice of k is not critical (Wood 2006).

217 The spatial smooth $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ is confounded with the functional predictor term, $\sum_{n=1}^{N} (f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot dbh_{jn} / AreaIn30_i), \text{ since both terms describe, in some way, the spatial pattern in the}$ 218 219 response. To avoid further confounding, we decided to include the effect of small trees in a linear form 220 rather than a functional predictor. We used k=10 for f_l since it was enough to represent the variation of the 221 coefficient of dbh as the actual effective degrees of freedom for f_l was between 3 and 4 - well below 10. 222 As we are ultimately interested in estimating the f_1 of the functional predictor and f_2 is entered to eliminate 223 the spatial correlation, we selected the smallest basis dimension (k) in f_2 that eliminated the spatial 224 correlation. For the different values of k in f_2 , we checked whether the spatial correlation had been 225 eliminated in the model by plotting semivariograms of the model residuals per inventory with envelopes 226 from 99 permutations under the assumption of no spatial correlation (see Augustin et al. 2009 for a 227 description).

228 The statistical analyses were carried out in R 3.3.3. (R Core Team 2017) using the "gam" function 229 of the package "mgcv" (Wood 2011) for fitting the models where we used the restricted maximum 230 likelihood option. This means that the smoothness parameters are estimated using restricted maximum 231 likelihood estimation and a penalized iterative re-weighted least squares algorithm is used to find all other 232 parameters, i.e. the coefficients of basis functions and coefficients of linear terms. See Wood (2011) for the 233 theory and Augustin et al. (2015) for a functional predictor example. For model checking we used the functions "variog" and "variog.mc.env" of the package "geoR" (Ribeiro and Diggle 2016) for estimating 234 235 the semivariograms and the envelopes.

237 3 Results

3.1 Intermediate stages of the regeneration period

The total number of saplings was inversely related to the time whereas the mean size (dbh and height) of the saplings increased with time (Table 1). Saplings were spread around the plot except in the center and the bottom left corner (Fig. 2). Unlike the saplings, we found that the number of trees, both small and adult trees, increased with time, the mean dbh and size of this stratum decreasing with time due to ingrowth of individuals from the previous class (Table 1). During the study period, we found a great increase in small trees, especially in the lower right part of the plot (Fig. 2).

245 Both model 1 and model 2 explained a similar amount of deviance, almost 41%. However, the 246 AIC of model 1 was lower than that of model 2 (Table 2). Therefore, we selected model 1, the more 247 parsimonious model, with additive effects of space and time. This entails that the spatial distribution of the 248 saplings remained constant over the time. The spatial smooth function (f_2) and the temporal factor (*Time*) 249 improved the model in terms of AIC (Table 3). Fig. 4 shows the estimated spatial smooth function f_2 on the 250 scale of the linear predictor. The estimate of the aggregation parameter θ of the negative binomial 251 distribution is 1.5 and 1.4 in model 1 and 2, respectively. Our results show that we have chosen k large 252 enough for both functions f_1 and f_2 , as we see that the effective degrees of freedom given in Table 2 are 253 below k-1; the same applies to results for the other plot. The coefficients of dbh were robust to changes in 254 k. This also applies to results of the other plot. Fig. 5 shows that the spatial correlation was eliminated.

255 Removing the term relating to the density of small trees increased the AIC (Table 3). The β of the density of small trees was negative (β =-0.0004) pointing towards competition between small trees and 256 saplings. Furthermore, Fig. 6 shows the smooth coefficient of $dbh(f_i)$ of adult trees over Dist. More saplings 257 258 are expected to be found when the product of the smooth coefficient and the *dbh* is large, that is, the model 259 predicts the greatest number of saplings for the largest trees located at the distances to which f_l is highest. 260 f_1 varied smoothly across the distances with significantly negative values from 0 m up to 7 m. From 7 m, f_1 is not statistically different from zero as the 95 % confidence intervals contained zero. This suggests 261 262 competition between adult trees and saplings at shorter distances (<7 m) and no relationship at larger 263 distances between these two cohorts. From 13 to 20 m, the mean value of f_1 turned positive and significant 264 reaching the largest values of the smooth function. Beyond 20 m, the smooth function f_i started decreasing 265 and it was not statistically different from zero.

266 **3.2 End of the regeneration period**

The dynamics of the saplings and the trees followed the same trends as at intermediate stages of the regeneration period: the number of saplings decreased and their mean size increased with time. The number of trees decreased but the mean dbh and height increased over the four inventories because of fellings. However, in this plot there were less saplings and their mean size was larger than in the youngest studied plot. Additionally, there were more trees overall at the end of the regeneration period than in the previous stages. Nevertheless, Table 1 shows that the number of small trees reduced with time whereas the number of adult trees increased.

274 As in the youngest studied plot, the model with the additive spatio-temporal structure (model 1), 275 which assumes a constant spatial distribution of the saplings over the studied period, showed a lower AIC 276 than model 2 (Table 2). We also found a significant effect of the spatio-temporal terms (f_2 and Time) in 277 terms of AIC (Table 3). The map of the contour lines (Fig. 7) represents well the spatial distribution of the 278 saplings during the last stages of the regeneration period (Fig. 3). The semivariograms showed that the 279 spatial structure eliminated the spatial correlation (Fig. 8). The estimate of the aggregation parameter θ of 280 the negative binomial distribution is smaller than in the other plot, it is around 0.8 (Table 2). This indicates 281 that saplings were more aggregated at the end of the regeneration period than in the previous stage, which 282 is also confirmed by the visual inspection of the spatial distribution of saplings (Fig. 2 and 3) showing a 283 more homogenous spread of saplings in earlier stages of the regeneration process.

In this plot, the β of density of small trees did not reduce the AIC whereas the rest of the terms reduced the AIC significantly (Table 3). Table 2 shows the effective degrees of freedom of the basis functions. The coefficient of the *dbh* of adult trees (f_1) took significant negative values from 0 to 8 m (Fig. 6). From 8 m, the 95 % confidence intervals contained the zero, and therefore we can state that the coefficient is not statistically different from 0. This suggests competition between saplings and adult trees at very small distances and no effect beyond 8 m.

290

291 4 Discussion

We fitted a GAM with a functional predictor in the model to describe the influence of size of trees on the number of saplings by distance in two stages of the regeneration period. We have confirmed that the functional predictor is useful to achieve this aim. In GAMs explanatory variables may enter the model in many different forms: as variables with linear effects, smooth terms, tensor products of several variables, with varying coefficients or as functional predictors. Additionally, alternative response distribution families and link functions can be selected (see for example Wood 2006). Therefore, all this makes the approach employed suitable to be used in other fields of forestry or ecology in which the response variable depends on the size and distance of the neighbors. For instance, this approach could be useful to fit growth or mortality models instead of using competition indices in parametric models (Contreras et al. 2011).

301 In this work, we have studied the last stages of the renewal of a forest after regeneration fellings. 302 Other authors have modelled the whole renewal of the forest using multistage models. For instance, Manso 303 et al. (2014) proposed a multistage model based on partial studies or submodels in order to predict the 304 regeneration occurrence of Pinus pinea L. in space and time. They considered different stages such as seed 305 dispersal, seed germination, post-dispersal predation and seedling survival. Multistage models provide 306 deeper ecological understanding than ours but the implementation is harder and requires stronger ecological 307 hypotheses. However, our approach shows great flexibility and might be used to determine the effects of a 308 limited number of factors on sapling distribution without making any assumptions about other factors 309 involved on dispersion and survival processes.

310 As mentioned above, this methodology allows different types of variables to be included in the 311 model. In this work, we included the density of small trees as a linear term and the spatio-temporal structure. 312 It might be useful to use variables driving the regeneration as predictors in the model, like shrub cover, soil 313 characteristics, cover and depth of litter or grass in each quadrat. However, gathering this data on large 314 plots requires a great effort and the influence of these variables on the seedlings of P. sylvestris has already 315 been studied at smaller scales (González-Martínez and Bravo 2001; Pardos et al. 2007; Barbeito et al. 2011; 316 Moreno-Fernández et al. 2015a). On the other hand, new individuals of P. sylvestris are expected to be 317 more affected by soil moisture than by other microsite characteristics (Barbeito et al. 2009; Moreno-318 Fernández et al. 2015a). However, because youngest individuals – seedlings – are less resistant to drought 319 than older – saplings (Maseda and Fernández 2006; Rodríguez-García et al. 2011; Manso et al. 2014), it 320 seems it is more necessary to include environmental variables in models dealing with seedlings rather than 321 in those dealing with older individuals – saplings. Moreover, it is likely the distance to adult trees is 322 confounded with other local factors. Any residual spatial trend in a model without a spatial smooth term is 323 caused by missing (unmeasured) environmental variables. Furthermore, the residual spatial trend could be 324 due to the seedling spatial structure that would result from past dispersal events from adjacent mother trees. 325 We have included the spatial smooth term as a proxy for effects of unmeasured environmental variables

and for the spatial pattern of the new individuals during previous stages of the forest renewal. We have investigated goodness-of-fit thoroughly, and found that we did not have any spatial trend in residuals or residual spatial correlation. This means that the models fit well and there was no model mis-specification. Although we have only results from two plots, it is striking that the estimated functions f_1 (of the effect of dbh) shown in Fig. 6 are very similar.

331 Our approach allows to test whether the spatial pattern remained constant over time by comparing 332 model 1 which assumes a constant spatial pattern with model 2 which allows for a spatial pattern changing 333 in time in the model selection. In our case, model 1 was selected suggesting that the spatial pattern of the 334 saplings remained constant over time. If model 2 had been selected, the spatial pattern of saplings would 335 have changed over the time. Due to the gradual low intensity fellings regime, which avoids damaging the 336 established saplings clumps, these clumps persist and the spatial structure of the saplings remains fairly 337 constant in each plot during the 15-year measurement period. On the other hand, if we were dealing with 338 faster-growth species the saplings could move to the next cohort faster and then change the spatial pattern. 339 Our results are consistent with LeMay et al. (2009) who reported that the spatial pattern of the new 340 individuals of P. menziesii did not change very much over time.

341 Although we only analyzed data from two large plots (0.5 ha) we re-measured the plots four times, 342 leading to four observations per plot. Large-sized plots with few sampling over time are common in 343 regeneration studies describing spatial processes. These kind of plots have been used in tropical (Ledo et 344 al. 2015), temperate (McDonald et al. 2003) and Mediterranean forests (Montes and Cañellas 2007; Ledo 345 et al. 2014). Additionally, we modelled the number of saplings per 4 m² quadrat, i.e., we used 5 000 quadrats 346 covering different competition conditions to fit every model. Moreover, the models presented in this work 347 were fitted for explanatory purposes rather than predictive purposes. If we had aimed to fit a predictive 348 model, we would have needed more temporal measurements to cover all the regeneration period.

The underlying process studied here is the competition between trees and saplings. Our findings are in concordance with other studies: the saplings of *P. sylvestris* require high light conditions for successful development (Montes and Cañellas 2007). In Mediterranean areas, *P. sylvestris* seedlings require microsites with moderate light conditions (Pardos et al. 2007). These microsites ensure higher soil moisture than in open canopies but conserve enough level of sun radiation. In this regard, Castro et al. (2005) analyzed the growth of *P. sylvestris* seedlings in southern Spain under different light and water conditions concluding that the effects of water addition on seedlings growth are more evident in lightly microsites. 356 Moreover, once the seedlings have stepped into saplings, the maintenance costs increase with size (Falster 357 and Westoby 2003) and higher minimum light levels are required for survival (Williams et al. 1999). 358 Additionally, their roots can reach deeper soil layers with more water availability (Ritchie 1981). 359 Considering this, it seems it is necessary to reduce the canopy to favor the development of the saplings after 360 seedling establishment under moderate light conditions in Mediterranean areas. However, the shade 361 tolerance of *P. sylvestris* differ among regions. In northern locations where the summer drought is not a 362 limiting factor for seedling development, natural regeneration takes place in open canopies by using the 363 seed tree method (Hyppönen et al. 2013). In these latitudes, the negative spatial association between P. 364 sylvestris adult trees and saplings may be even more pronounced than in our study.

365 The establishment of the new stand has been achieved successfully at the end of the regeneration 366 period, the number of saplings decreased and the arrival of new individuals is no longer expected. Hence, 367 the mean dbh of the saplings is getting close to 10 cm, the lower limit for small trees. In this plot, the 368 number of small trees decreased over time due to the mortality as well as the growth and consequent 369 reclassification of trees as adult trees. Most of the trees in this plot were not mother trees of the saplings 370 but rather new cohorts of trees established at the first and intermediate stages of the regeneration period, 371 such as those in our youngest studied plot. Therefore, the spacing between saplings and adult trees is a 372 consequence of the competition between trees of different sizes.

373

374 5 Conclusions

375 We show that functional predictor in GAMs is a useful tool for modelling these kind of data as 376 they allow to model nonlinear and linear relationships. In addition they allow to take account of the spatio-377 temporal structure of the data by inclusion of spatial and spatio-temporal smooth predictors. The 378 methodology proposed has not been employed in forestry or ecology and can be broadly used in 379 regeneration studies or in other fields of forestry or ecology dealing with spatio-temporal data. Therefore 380 this methodology is potentially applicable in future ecological studies because of its flexibility. Additionally, this model can be used as a first step for a predictive model when more temporal data is 381 382 available. We found that once the seedlings have become established, the density of the adult trees must be 383 reduced heavily to allow the saplings to grow under high light conditions. In Mediterranean stands of P. sylvestris, the radius of the gaps created during the regeneration fellings under the group shelterwood should 384

385 be always larger than 7-8 m in order to minimize the competition between adult trees and saplings; whereas

if the radius is between 13 - 20 m the number of saplings will be maximized

387

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 America
- 546
- 547 Tables
- 548 Table 1 Summary of the mean forest features in each plot during the four inventories. Trees (dbh>= 10cm),
- adult trees (dbh≥20 cm), small trees (10≤dbh<20 cm), saplings (dbh<10cm and height ≥1.30m). Standard
- 550 deviation is within brackets

Feature	2001	2006	2010	2014		
Intermediate stage of the regeneration period						
Number of saplings	1 861	1 625	1 498	1 347		
Mean diameter of saplings (cm)	3.68 (2.31)	4.42 (2.29)	4.61 (2.38)	4.77 (2.36)		
Mean height of saplings (m)	4.20 (1.78)	4.86 (2.03)	5.38 (2.21)	5.76 (2.36)		
Number of adult trees	80	62	75	102		
Number of small trees	152	250	351	399		
Number of trees	232	312	426	501		
Mean diameter of trees (cm)	23.07 (14.75)	17.89 (11.30)	16.68 (8.89)	16.96 (8.72)		
Mean height of trees (m)	15.00 (6.90)	12.46 (5.32)	12.31 (4.23)	13.26 (4.16)		
End of the regeneration period						
Number of saplings	558	364	208	117		
Mean diameter of saplings (cm)	5.54 (2.66)	6.43 (2.32)	6.55 (2.24)	6.97 (2.19)		
Mean height of saplings	7.03 (3.27)	7.82 (3.32)	8.61 (3.44)	8.70 (3.55)		

Number of adult trees	174	233	283	317
Number of small trees	568	492	434	366
Number of trees	742	725	717	683
Mean diameter of trees (cm)	16.88 (6.04)	17.77 (5.99)	19.15 (6.45)	20.30 (6.78)
Mean height of trees (m)	14.72 (3.06)	16.21 (3.44)	17.16 (3.13)	18.85 (3.33)

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Table 2 Percentage of deviance explained, AIC (Akaike's Information Criterion), θ parameter in the variance of the negative binomial distribution, basis dimension (*k*) and effective degrees of freedom (e.df) of the functional linear predictor and the spatial smooth according to model 1 and model 2 in both plots. Inventory 2001, Inventory 2006, Inventory 2010 and Inventory 2014 indicate the effective degrees of freedom of the spatial smooth during the four inventories in Model 2

Feature	Intermediate stage of the		End of the regeneration period	
	regeneration period			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Deviance explained (%)	40.7	41.0	34.8	41
AIC	1 3120.98	1 3432.74	5 083.48	5 184.80
heta of variance	1.53	1.42	0.83	0.76
$k \operatorname{of} f_l$	10	10	10	10
e.df of f_l	3.47	3.599	4.33	4.40
$k ext{ of } f_2$	100	100	30	30
e.df of f_2 in model 1	90.42	-	24.50	-
Inventory 2001	-	69.60	-	19.47
Inventory 2006	-	65.64	-	17.30
Inventory 2010	-	63.42	-	16.28
Inventory 2014	-	63.11	-	13.15

562 f_l : linear pr	edictor. f2: spati	al smoother
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- 572 Table 3 Summary of the backward stepwise variables selection process according to the Akaike's
- 573 Information Criterion (AIC). In bold, the selected model

Variables included in the alternative models during backward stepwise selection process AIC

Intermediate stage of the regeneration period

(1)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$$

1 3120.98

(2)
$$\alpha + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$$
 1 3126.06

(3)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$$
 13125.11

(4)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right)$$
 1 500.13

(5)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2^j (X_i, Y_i)$$
 1 3432.74

End of the regeneration period

(1)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$$

(2) $\alpha + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_j$
5 083.48

(3)
$$\alpha + f_2(X_i, Y_i) + Time_i$$
 5 120.71

(4)
$$\alpha + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right)$$
 5 387.18

(5)
$$\alpha + \beta \cdot \frac{Nsmall_{ij}}{AreaIn10_i} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(f_1(Dist_{in}) \cdot \frac{dbh_{jn}}{AreaIn30_i} \right) + f_2^{j}(X_i, Y_i)$$
 5 184.80

579 Caption of figures

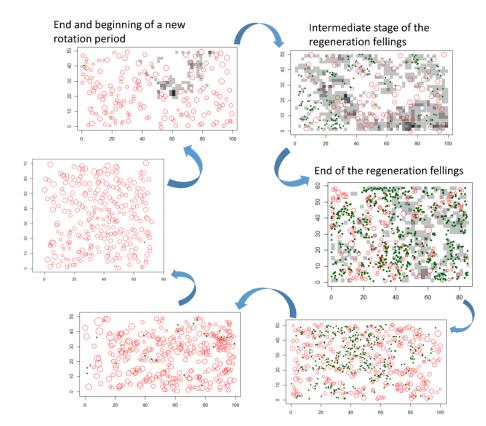


Fig. 1 Position of adult trees (dbh≥20 cm; red circles), small trees (10≤dbh≤20 cm; green dots) and number of saplings per quadrat (darker tones indicate larger number of saplings) of the six plots of the chronosequence in 2001. Size of adult trees is proportional to dbh

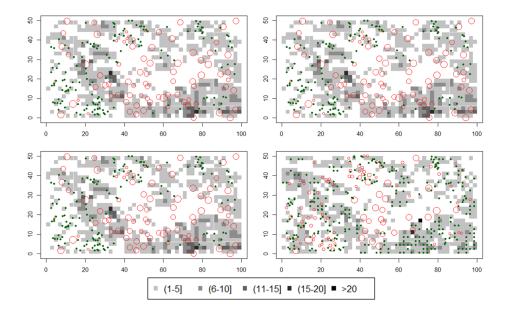


Fig. 2 Position of adult trees (dbh≥20 cm; red circles), small trees (10≤dbh≤20 cm; green dots) and number
of saplings per quadrat (black and gray squares) at intermediate stages of the regeneration period in 2001
(upper left), 2006 (upper right), 2010 (bottom left) and 2014 (bottom right). Size of adult trees is
proportional to dbh

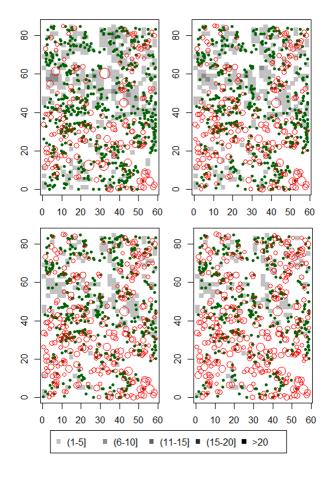
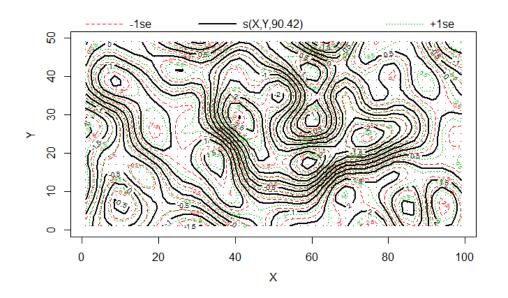


Fig. 3 Position of adult trees (dbh≥20 cm; red circles), small trees (10≤dbh≤20 cm; green dots) and number
of saplings per quadrat (black and gray squares) at the end of the regeneration period in 2001 (upper left),
2006 (upper right), 2010 (bottom left) and 2014 (bottom right). Size of adult trees is proportional to dbh



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Fig. 4 Estimated $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ spatial smooth function (continuous black contour lines) and standard errors (dashed red and green contour lines) on the scale of the linear predictor at intermediate stages of the regeneration period. Large values of $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ indicate large number of saplings

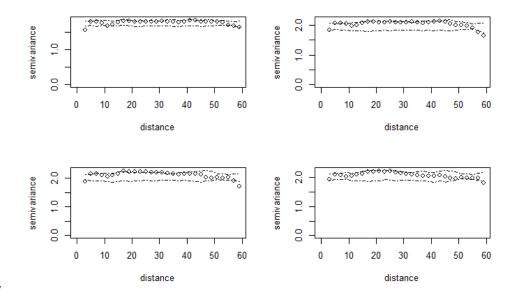


Fig. 5 Semivariograms (circles) and envelopes (dashed lines) of the Pearson residuals from the sapling
distribution model at intermediate stages of the regeneration in 2001 (upper left), 2006 (upper right), 2010
(lower left) and 2014 (lower right)

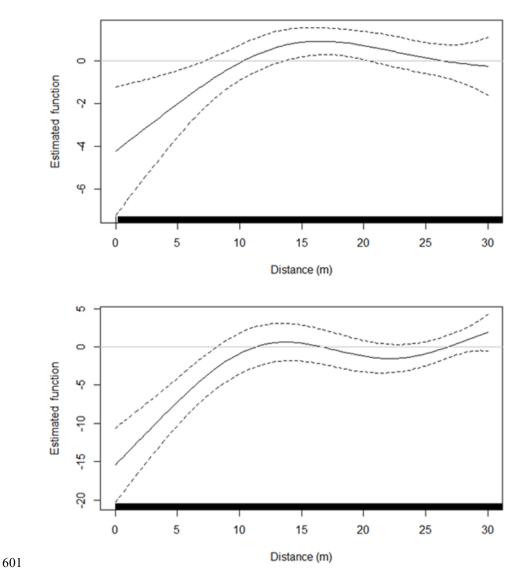
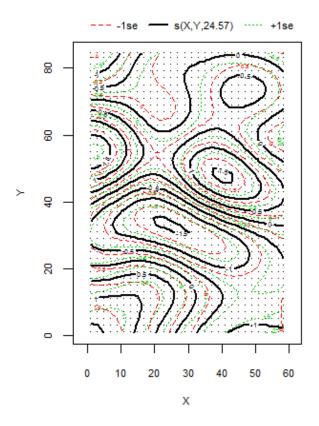
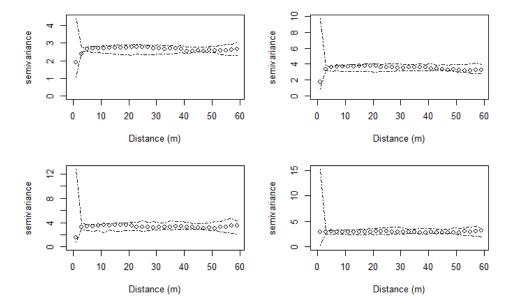


Fig. 6 Estimated $f_l(Dist_{in})$ smooth coefficient function of the diameter at breast height of adult trees over the distance between adult trees – saplings (continuous lines) and 95% confidence intervals (dashed lines) at intermediate stages (upper) and the end (lower) of the regeneration period. Positive values of $f_l(Dist_{in})$ indicate positive effects of the diameter at breast height of adult trees on the number of saplings





607 Fig. 7 Estimated $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ spatial smooth function (continuous black contour lines) and standard errors 608 (dashed red and green contour lines) on the scale of the linear predictor at the end of the regeneration period. 609 Large values of $f_2(X_i, Y_i)$ indicate large number of saplings



610

Fig. 8 Semivariograms (circles) and envelopes (dashed lines) of the Pearson residuals from the sapling
distribution model at the end of the regeneration period in 2001 (upper left), 2006 (upper right), 2010 (lower
left) and 2014 (lower right)