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Environmental and anthropogenic drivers of coniferous species distribution in Mediterranean drylands from North West Algeria

--Manuscript Draft--

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| Abstract: | <p>Understanding the influence of environmental and anthropogenic factors on the distribution of species is essential for developing management in endangered ecosystems. We studied the current abundance and distribution patterns of vegetation along environmental and anthropogenic gradients by shaping their distribution in North West Algeria. We put special emphasis in the four dominant coniferous species (<i>Pinus halepensis</i>, <i>Tetraclinis articulata</i>, <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i> and <i>Juniperus phoenicea</i>). We compiled inventories of species composition, together with 12 environmental variables in 177 sampling plots throughout the study area. Multivariate and univariate analyses were applied to predict presence of coniferous species and to explore species-environment relationships along ecological and anthropogenic variables. We found that species segregated along environmental gradients, mainly altitude and related climatic variables (temperatures). Anthropogenic variables, like fire frequency and overgrazing, were secondary, but also significant. <i>J. phoenicea</i> was located exclusively in coastal areas. <i>T. articulata</i> had a wide distribution and was linked to coastal and inland areas, but did not arrive at more continental areas (colder and drier), where it was replaced with <i>J. oxycedrus</i>. <i>P. halepensis</i> displayed the widest distribution and was practically present throughout the study area, but its maximum distribution was in continental areas. These results indicate a possible shift of species' potential distribution in future climatic change. Species like <i>J. oxycedrus</i> would be seriously threatened by niche narrowing, while <i>P. halepensis</i> and <i>T. articulata</i> could expand to a certain extent. Our results provide important inputs for optimising the management plans of coniferous species by considering environmental factors key modulators of vegetation distribution.</p> |
| Response to Reviewers: | <p>Title: Environmental and anthropogenic drivers of coniferous species distribution in Mediterranean drylands from North West Algeria</p> <p>Folia Geobotanica</p> |

Dear Markus Bernhardt-Römermann, Associate Editor of Folia Geobotanica:

Please find enclosed a copy of our revised manuscript in which address suggestions of Reviewer #1:

QUESTION: I have now checked the manuscript and I am happy to read that the authors have addressed all my comments. I think that the paper the manuscript can be accepted but I would like to draw their attention to the following perhaps minor issues.
RESPONSE: Thanks!

QUESTION: One of my earlier comments was: Please place the study area in the context of Algeria by providing some information on species and biogeography.

By that I meant give concise info on the number of flora in Algeria the endemism level and the chorology of the flora and then suggest how the flora of your study area compares to that of the country. This is important background info for the reader which can be summarised in 5 lines. Not much work for the authors really

RESPONSE: Following the Reviewer's suggestion we have included some references about the North African and Algerian flora (number of species and endemism). Then we compare these values with the flora in our study site. As the Reviewer suggests, this can help the reader to understand our study. See lines 123-130.

QUESTION: Regarding the localization map (Fig1) the authors provide major geomorphologic zones on the legend not places names. I don't think that by adding 3-4 major place names the figure would get overloaded. Algeria is a large country and its geography unfortunately is not well-known to the average reader.

RESPONSE: We have modified Fig. 1. We have included three of the main cities in the study area. As the Reviewer suggests, this can help to put in situation our readers.

We would like to thank again the Reviewers and the Editor for the time dedicated to our manuscript and for their numerous, constructive and helpful comments provided. We also feel that the manuscript has substantially improved with the changes introduced, and hope that this new version will be suitable for publication in Folia Geobotanica.
Sincerely,
M. Jaime Baeza.



1 **Environmental and anthropogenic drivers of coniferous species distribution in Mediterranean drylands**
2 **from North West Algeria**

3

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16 Dedicated to Faouzia Ayache (Nedroma, 1976–2016).

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31 **Abstract**

32

33 Understanding the influence of environmental and anthropogenic factors on the distribution of species is
34 essential for developing management in endangered ecosystems. We studied the current abundance and
35 distribution patterns of vegetation along environmental and anthropogenic gradients in North West Algeria. We
36 focused on the four dominant coniferous species (*Pinus halepensis*, *Tetraclinis articulata*, *Juniperus oxycedrus*
37 and *Juniperus phoenicea*). We compiled inventories of species composition, together with 12 environmental
38 variables in 177 sampling plots throughout the study area. Multivariate (Detrended Correspondence Analysis)
39 and univariate (HOF models) analyses were applied to predict presence of coniferous species and to explore
40 species-environment relationships along ecological and anthropogenic variables. We found that species
41 segregated along environmental gradients, mainly altitude and related climatic variables (temperatures).
42 Anthropogenic variables, like fire frequency and overgrazing, were secondary, but also significant. *J. phoenicea*
43 was located exclusively in coastal areas. *T. articulata* had a wide distribution and was linked to coastal and
44 inland areas, but did not arrive at more continental areas (colder and drier), where it was replaced with *J.*
45 *oxycedrus*. *P. halepensis* displayed the widest distribution and was practically present throughout the study area,
46 but its maximum abundance was in continental areas. These results indicate a possible shift of species' potential
47 distribution in future climatic change. Species like *J. oxycedrus* would be seriously threatened by niche
48 narrowing, while *P. halepensis* and *T. articulata* could expand to a certain extent. Our results provide important
49 inputs for optimising the management plans of coniferous species by considering environmental factors key
50 modulators of vegetation distribution.

51

52 **Keywords:** coniferous forest, fire frequency, global change, overgrazing, species distribution gradient.

53

54 **1. Introduction**

55

56 In recent years, predictive modelling of species distribution has become an important tool to address ecology and
57 biogeography issues (Franklin 2010; Acevedo et al. 2012) and, more recently, in restoration, conservation
58 biology and climate change research (Hannah et al. 2014). In ecological studies, species-environment
59 relationships have been crucial for explaining the spatial structuring of natural ecosystems (Davies et al. 2007). It
60 is essential to determine the interactions between abiotic factors that limit species existence (fundamental niche)
61 with anthropogenic and other biotic factors constraining this existence (realized niche) (Pearman et al. 2008).
62 Co-existing tree species have different responses to environmental factors, determined by their genetic and
63 physiological features, as well as their relationships to physiochemical variables (fundamental niche). However,
64 interactions with other organisms, selective management, and human-induced disturbances can vastly alter these
65 potential plant-environment patterns (realized niche) (Nicolaci et al. 2015). Many studies relate present-day
66 geographic distributions to climatic variables (Pliscoff et al. 2014), and then project future distributions in
67 various climate change scenarios (Boden et al. 2010). Furthermore, climate in combination with other
68 environmental factors, such as soil and elevation (Nicolaci et al. 2015), natural and human disturbances (e.g.,
69 fire; Baeza et al. 2007) and historical management (Urbieto et al. 2011), has been much used to explain the main
70 vegetation patterns around the world (Schwilk and Keeley 2012). Therefore, accurate knowledge of the
71 ecological and anthropogenic drivers that affect vegetation distribution is necessary for forest planning and for
72 designing models of species distribution (Hörsch 2003). This information would be particularly important in the
73 conservation of endangered ecosystems, such as some coniferous forests in the Mediterranean Basin (Rupprecht
74 et al. 2011).

75 Under the arid and semiarid climatic conditions that exist in the Mediterranean Basin, coniferous forests are a
76 substantial component, with taxa of pine (to a greater extent) and cupressaceous species (to a lesser extent) found
77 among the most dominant elements (Quézel 2000). These woodlands are of enormous ecological and economic
78 importance since they contribute significantly to local economy, and also because of their relevance for regional
79 biodiversity (Médail 2003) that enhances large-scale ecosystem multifunctionality (van der Plas et al. 2016).
80 Coniferous forest distribution in Mediterranean landscapes is characterised by occupying diverse environmental
81 conditions in relation to climate and soils, and by the frequency and intensity of disturbances (both natural and
82 anthropogenic) (Le Houerou 1980). However, the socio-economic differences between Northern and Southern
83 Mediterranean countries lead to different ecological and anthropogenic pressures (Chergui et al. 2018). In

84 Northern countries, for example, rural depopulation has promoted the expansion of conifer species and forests
85 (mainly *Pinus halepensis*) in the last decades (Quézel 2004). In this case, fire occurrence is the main degradation
86 factor as consequence of the increasing amount and connectivity of fuels (Santana et al. 2010; Chergui et al.
87 2018). In contrast, Southern countries have a sizeable rural population growth combined with a predominantly
88 precarious way of life (Zohry 2005). In this case fire is not the predominant degradation factor and the
89 overexploitation of natural resources by means of agriculture, wood gathering and grazing can also be a source
90 of degradation (Taïqui and Martin, 1997; Hadjadj Aoual 2009). In Algeria, forests have historically been
91 subjected to disturbances, but the deforestation threat has increased in recent times as these disturbances have
92 intensified (Dahmani-Megrerouche 2002; Hadjadj Aoual 2009). In fact, the strong human pressure on Algerian
93 forests has diminished their extent and has changed their structure to shrublands, croplands and grasslands.
94 Nevertheless, some specific forest types, in particular those dominated by the coniferous ones, still persist and
95 are of conservation interest (Hadjadj Aoual 2009). Despite their considerable value, very little information on the
96 spatial distribution of these coniferous species is available, which may hamper future conservation planning.
97 Previous studies in north west Algeria (Dahmani-Megrerouche 2002; Hadjadj Aoual 2009; Kadik 2011) have
98 facilitated the characterisation of the structure and floristic composition of vegetation, including coniferous
99 formations. However, no study has attempted to assess the habitat distributions of these species along
100 environmental gradients. Such an assessment would undoubtedly help to implement adequate conservation and
101 sustainable development programmes to protect these endangered systems. Despite the threatened status of many
102 coniferous species that require attention, many questions about their biogeography and ecology still remain
103 unsolved.

104 The present study analyses the factors that drive the distribution patterns of four coniferous species in an arid
105 area from North West Algeria. We focused on this area because it includes a smooth biome transition between
106 Mediterranean and arid climatic conditions, and is characterised by great climatic complexity, altitude and
107 distance from the Mediterranean Sea. Coniferous woodland constitutes the most widely distributed vegetation
108 types of drylands in the southern Mediterranean Basin, and studying this area can provide insights for future
109 management plans. We focused on investigating the relationships between the abundance of these species and
110 various key environmental (climatic and geomorphic) and anthropogenic (fire and grazing) factors. The
111 quantification of such species-environment relationships represents the core of predictive geographical
112 modelling in ecology (Thuiller et al. 2003). This assessment is essential for improving the use of coniferous
113 species in afforestation programmes where their presence is endangered. To this end, it is fundamental to study

114 the environmental factors that determine the ecological niche of these species. Specifically this work aimed to
115 answer three questions: (1) what is the current distribution of four dominant coniferous species along the
116 environmental gradients in North West Algeria? (2) which environmental variables prove the most important in
117 predicting coniferous species distribution? (3) do anthropogenic-caused disturbances, such as grazing and fire,
118 influence species distribution?

119

120 **2. Material and methods**

121

122 *2.1 Study area*

123 About 4000 plant species occur in the north African of the Mediterranean region. Of these, approximately 72 %
124 are Mediterranean endemics, though only 20% are confined to North Africa (White 1983). Algeria includes most
125 of this flora with 3139 species (RNE 2000). The study area is located in North West Algeria, Wilaya of Tlemcen
126 (Fig 1), whose geomorphology reveals a wide diversity of landforms, including from north to south: coastal area,
127 the mountains of Traras, the Tellians plains, the mountains of Tlemcen and a pre-steppe area (Fig 1). Most of this
128 area is composed mainly of degraded and disturbed vegetation dominated chiefly by coniferous species (e.g., *P.*
129 *halepensis*, *Tetraclinis articulata*, *Juniperus oxycedrus* and *Juniperus phoenicea*). In this sense, these species
130 and the companion flora accounts approximately 10% of Algerian flora (Ayache 2007).

131 The area encompasses a wide elevation range from sea level to 1,180 m, characterised by an arid and
132 semiarid climate with wide inter-annual variability. Mean annual temperatures range from 13°C to 20°C, and
133 annual mean rainfall varies between 254 mm and 484 mm (The National Office of Meteorology, the 1980-2011
134 period). A detailed description of the study sites is provided in Table 1. In the study area, the wide spatial
135 variation of the key environmental factors, as well as the heterogeneity that arises from human-produced
136 disturbances, lead to a diverse mosaic of Mediterranean vegetation. This mosaic is composed of degraded
137 vegetation dominated by these four coniferous species (*P. halepensis*, *T. articulata*, *J. oxycedrus* and *J.*
138 *phoenicea*). Only a few of these coniferous-dominated forests remain intact, and are sometimes mixed with
139 evergreen oaks (*Quercus ilex* and *Quercus suber*). The most common accompanying shrubs are: *Quercus*
140 *coccifera*, *Pistacia lentiscus*, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, *Olea europea*, *Phillyrea angustifolia*, *Erica multiflora*,
141 *Cistus ssp.*, and some other communities of halophytes and psammophytes. This area has also been historically
142 subjected to intense disturbances, e.g. overgrazing and recurrent fires, which have led to a major deforestation

143 threat in recent times (Meddour-Sahar 2015). Species nomenclature used in this study is based on Quezel and
144 Santa (1962-63).

145 The forested area occupies around 199,488 ha of a total study area that covers 901,769 ha, of which 115,500
146 ha are dominated by coniferous species (58% of the forested area, DGFT, 2011). In this study, we focused on the
147 distribution of the four coniferous species that are dominant in the study area: *P. halepensis*, *T. articulata*, *J.*
148 *oxycedrus* and *J. phoenicea*.

149

150 2.2 Sampling design

151 Sampling was designed by considering distance from the sea, different altitudes, and presence and dominance of
152 coniferous species (Fig 1, Table 1). Sampling also included vegetation types, where *Q. ilex* and *Q. suber* are
153 present. Along a latitudinal transect from the coast to the pre-steppic area, 14 sites were selected as study sites,
154 which represented the main coniferous forests for the different altitudes, aspects and substrata (Table 1). At each
155 site, 10 to 22 plots were established randomly depending on space availability; e.g., the number of plots per site
156 was proportional to the total area occupied by coniferous species. Vegetation sampling was conducted in the
157 springs of 2008 and 2009 following the phytosociological method of Braun Blanquet (1952). A list of all the
158 species present in an area of 100 m² was collected per plot. This sampling size has been considered sufficient to
159 properly record the vegetation in our study area (Hadjadj Aoual 1995). For each plot, all the vascular species
160 present were annotated and accompanied with an abundance-dominance index (Braun Blanquet 1952).
161 Subsequently, the coefficients of abundance-dominance (on the 6-level scale of Braun Blanquet: +, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)
162 were transformed to a cover percent (0.1%, 5%, 17.5%, 37.5%, 62.5% and 87.5%) with the conversion proposed
163 by van der Maarel (1979). The floristic composition and environmental characteristics were sampled in 177 plots
164 distributed among the 14 sites.

165

166 2.3 Explanatory variables

167 Twelve environmental variables were considered as being explanatory for species distribution. For each plot we
168 measured: altitude, distance from the sea, vegetation cover, slope, aspect, precipitations, the minimum
169 temperature of the coldest month, snow, continentality and substratum type. Fire and grazing frequency were
170 also included as anthropogenic explanatory variables. Altitude was extracted from the Z coordinate of the GPS in
171 the field. Distance from the sea was determined from the map created by gvSIG [<http://www.gvsig.org>; last
172 accessed October 2015]. Vegetation cover was considered as the percentage of vascular species coverage. Slope

173 and aspect (north, east, west and south) were determined in the field using a clinometer and a compass. We
174 obtained climate data from the records of the nearest weather stations; mean annual precipitations, annual
175 minimum temperatures and annual average of days with snowing days. Climate data encompassed the period
176 from 1980 to 2011. Continentality was estimated according to Debrach's Index (Debrach, 1953). This index
177 calculates the difference between the mean daily maximum temperature of the warmest month (M) and the mean
178 daily minimum temperature of the coldest month (m) ($^{\circ}\text{C}$). According to this index, when $M-m < 15^{\circ}$: Island
179 climate, $15^{\circ}\text{C} < M-m < 25^{\circ}\text{C}$: Coastal climate, $25^{\circ}\text{C} < M-m < 35^{\circ}\text{C}$: semi-continental climate, $M-m > 35^{\circ}\text{C}$:
180 continental climate. For clarity in the data analysis, some variables were semi-quantitatively classified. Aspect
181 was classified following an increasing gradient of aridity from 1 to 4 (1: north, 2: east, 3: west, 4: south) (Baeza
182 et al. 2007). Disturbance caused by grazing was estimated by visual evidence, the information provided by local
183 people and the statistics of forest services (DGFT 2011). Three grazing levels were established: 0: absent, 1:
184 frequent, 2: overgrazing. Fire occurrence was expressed as: 0: absent, and 1: present, where plots were classified
185 according to evidence of past fire recorded during the 1987-2011 period by the forest conservation services of
186 Tlemcen (DGFT 2011). Soil substratum was classified as: siliceous (1) or limestone (2). As expected, climatic
187 variables related to temperature (minimum temperature, snow and the Debrach index) were correlated among
188 them, as well as with distance from the sea and altitude (Table S1). Therefore, in subsequent analysis we used
189 only elevation as descriptor of all these variables for simplicity.

190

191 *2.4 Data analysis*

192 The collected data yielded a matrix of 177 plots and 192 vascular species. These data were analysed by means of
193 ordination methods to describe patterns in species composition and vegetation types in relation to the
194 environmental and anthropogenic characteristics. For this purpose we used the "vegan" package for multivariate
195 analyses (Oksanen et al. 2015) within the R software environment (R Development Core Team 2015, v. 3.2.2,
196 Vienna, Austria). Firstly, vegetation data were analysed by a detrended correspondence analysis (DCA; Hill and
197 Gauch 1980), where cover values were $\log(x+1)$ transformed and rare species were downweighted to fraction 5.
198 Secondly, once the DCA analysis was performed, we distinguished different community types by means of a
199 hierarchical cluster analysis of the two first axes of the sampled plots scores of the DCA (Orlóci 1978). These
200 community types would be initially dominated by different combinations of the studied coniferous species.
201 Thirdly, to determine the relationship of environmental variables sampled on species composition, we fitted
202 these variables passively into the species ordination space (passive fit: function "envfit" with 1000

203 permutations). Aspect, grazing, fire occurrence, soil substratum were included in the passive analysis as semi-
204 quantitative variables for obtaining more visual results. Finally, the response of the four studied coniferous
205 species was modelled according to the continuous environment variables by means of Huisman-Olf-Fresco
206 (HOF) models (Jansen and Oksanen 2013). HOF models are a means of describing species response to
207 environmental gradients. A hierarchical series of seven response models are fitted, ranked by their increasing
208 complexity (Model I, no species trend; Model II, increasing or decreasing trend; Model III, increasing or
209 decreasing trend below a maximum attainable response; Model IV, symmetrical unimodal response curve;
210 Model V, unimodal skewed response curve; Model VI, response with two unimodal equal optima; and VII,
211 response with two unimodal unequal optima. These models were fitted using a Gaussian error distribution, and
212 the model with higher parsimony (lower Akaike's information criterion, AIC) was selected. For categorical
213 variables fire, grazing and substratum, the mean and the 95% confidence intervals were estimated by the means
214 of bootstrapping with 999 bootstrap replicates. HOF models were fitted with the "eHOF" package (Jansen and
215 Oksanen 2013) within the R environment, while bootstrapping was performed by means of the "boot" package
216 (Canty and Ripley 2017).

217 **3. Results**

218

219 *3.1 Multivariate analysis for community composition.*

220 A total of 192 species were detected in the whole study (Table S2). Vegetation cover in the sampled plots
221 averaged 52%, but ranged from 30% to 70%. The DCA analysis produced eigenvalues (λ) of 0.42, 0.38, 0.28,
222 0.28 and gradient lengths of 3.99, 3.97, 3.95 and 2.83 for the first four axes. The cluster analysis on the sample-
223 plots scores from the first two axes of the DCA (Fig 2) determined four different community types (Fig 3a). All
224 environmental variables analysed showed a significant relationship with the DCA 1 or DCA 2 axes (Table 2, Fig
225 3b).

226 A first community type (C1) was ordinated on the lower left-hand side of the DCA plot. C1 was placed
227 at low elevation sites, with short distances from the sea and low continentality (Fig 3a). This community was
228 dominated mainly by *J. phoenicea*, accompanied by shrub species such as *Erica multiflora* and *Pistacia lentiscus*
229 (Fig 3c). A second community type (C2) was also ordinated in the lower left-hand side of the DCA, but at less
230 negative values of DCA 2. This community was also placed at low elevation sites, but it was affected by a
231 higher grazing pressure. C2 was composed mainly by *Tetraclinis articulata*, accompanied by *Chamaerops*
232 *humilis*, *Lavandula dentata*, *Cistus monspelliensis* and *Rosmarinus officinalis*. A third community type (C3) was

233 observed at intermediate values of altitude, which in addition experienced the highest levels of pasture and
234 southern aspects. This community type was dominated by *Tetraclinis articulata* with an important presence of
235 *Ceratonia siliqua*, *Cistus albidus*, *Olea europaea* and *Cistus ladaniferus*. Herbaceous species, such as *Bromus*
236 *rubens* and *Plantago lagopus*, also acquired relevance in C3 composition. Finally, there was depicted a fourth
237 community type (C4) which occupied sites with the highest elevation and precipitation levels. This community
238 was dominated by *Pinus halepensis* and *Juniperus oxycedrus*, accompanied by *Quercus ilex*, *Quercus coccifera*,
239 *Phillyrea angustifolia*, *Globularia alypum* and *Cistus villosus*. Grasses as *Stipa tenacissima* and *Ampelodesmos*
240 *mauritanica* were also present in C4.

241

242 3.2 HOF models for coniferous species.

243 The response to the altitude gradient showed that *P. halepensis* was the most widely represented, but was in
244 lower (0-200 m) and higher areas (>1,000 m) where its full development was found (Fig 4). *J. phoenicea*
245 occupied low land areas (>250 m), whereas *T. articulata* occupied a fringe between the coast and 400 m. *J.*
246 *oxycedrus* showed an asymptotic response with its optimum value starting from 800 to 1,200 m.

247 The precipitation gradient showed that *P. halepensis* had a wide rainfall range. This species comprised areas
248 of annual rainfall between 250 and 500 mm, with its optimum in the areas within the 350-450 mm range (Fig 4).
249 The optimum of *T. articulata* was below *P. halepensis* (around 350 mm), and *J. phoenicea* did not follow any
250 pattern regarding to precipitation. The maximum response of *J. oxycedrus* was obtained in the wettest zone of
251 the study area (> 400 mm), below which it was scarce, but could withstand arid areas with 300-350 mm.

252 *P. halepensis* and *J. oxycedrus* were the species distributed most frequently on the steepest slopes (Fig 4),
253 whereas *J. phoenicea* was the species that occupied the flattest environments. *T. articulata* was found at
254 intermediate slopes (15-25°). *J. oxycedrus* was the species favoured xeric aspects (south and west) (Fig 4). In
255 contrast, *J. phoenicea* displayed more affinity to northern aspects. *P. halepensis* showed affinity for eastern and
256 western aspects, whereas any affinity was observed for *T. articulata*.

257 Fire diminished the presence of *J. oxycedrus* and *P. halepensis*, but increased that of *T. articulata* and *J.*
258 *phoenicea* (Fig 5a). Overgrazing had a negative impact on all species responses, but intermediate grazing
259 promoted their response in *J. phoenicea* and *T. articulata* (Fig 5b). Finally, *J. phoenicea* showed more affinity
260 for siliceous substratum than for limestones (Fig 5c).

261

262 4. Discussion

263 4.1 Environmental and anthropogenic vegetation drivers

264 Coniferous species and their associated communities segregate mainly along the altitudinal gradient depicted for
265 our study in North West Algeria, a gradient that is highly correlated to continentality (distance to the sea). This is
266 in accordance with other studies into coniferous formations (Boden et al. 2010; Rupprecht et al. 2011; Urbietta et
267 al. 2011; Serra-Diaz et al. 2013; Nicolaci et al. 2015), which have shown that both degree of continentality and
268 altitude are the two environmental factors that strongly modulate coniferous vegetation distribution. Similarly,
269 other vegetation types have also been limited by these gradients (Sanders et al. 2014).

270 Continentiality was one of the main controlling factors for vegetation growth and distribution in our study. In
271 fact, in coastal areas, with lower thermal amplitude where snow is an exceptional phenomenon, the shrublands of
272 *J. phoenicea* were abundant, but well-localised. These maritime *Juniperus* strongly compete with more
273 widespread species; e.g. *P. halepensis* and *T. articulata*. Indeed the coastal area is occupied mainly by this
274 community type where *P. halepensis* and *T. articulata* are also present. It is worth noting that *P. halepensis*
275 forests have been widely promoted by extensive plantation along the coast in Algeria since the 20th century
276 (Kadik 2011), which would partially explain the wide distribution of this species. After this initial coastal
277 vegetation type, the landscape went on to be dominated by *T. articulata*. This species avoids sand dunes where
278 salt spray has damaging effects and gives way to *J. phoenicea*, which is more resistant (Fennane and Barbero
279 1984). *T. articulata* was found to be related to coastal and semi-continental areas because the effects of
280 prolonged winter frosts in the more continental areas eliminates this species, which is relegated by *J. oxycedrus*
281 and *P. halepensis* that better tolerate these conditions (Hadjadj Aoual 1995; Dahmani-Megrerouche 2002).
282 Thermophyllus species like *P. lentiscus* and *C. humilis* (Baeza et al. 2007) were also found in the lower areas
283 accompanying these community types dominated by either *J. phoenicia* or *T. articulata*. Distance from the sea
284 generates a cooler climate suitable for *J. oxycedrus* and *P. halepensis* occurrence, and eliminates *T. articulata*
285 and the maritime *J. phoenicea*. The optimum of *J. oxycedrus* occurs under these conditions, and can be mixed
286 with *Q. ilex*, *Q. coccifera* and *P. angustifolia* (Dahmani-Megrerouche 2002). These results are interesting
287 because they denote that climatic factors other than aridity (precipitation) play a preponderant role in vegetation
288 distribution in drylands. In our study, precipitation had some effect on coniferous distribution, but was less
289 important compared to temperature factors (altitude and the correlated minimum temperature, Debrach's Index,
290 snow). *P. halepensis* displayed a relative wide annual precipitation range, whereas *J. phoenicea* did not show
291 any precipitation effect.

292 Despite these two factors (altitude and precipitation) being the most important, geomorphological variables
293 (aspect and slope) also influence vegetation distribution locally (Baeza et al. 2007); e.g., *J. oxycedrus* was the
294 species that better supported xeric aspects (south and west), whereas *J. phoenicea* displayed more affinity to
295 northern aspects. Similarly, *J. oxycedrus* was able to withstand the highest slopes, while *J. phoenicea* preferred
296 flat environments. These results are in accordance with other studies performed in different Mediterranean
297 communities (Carmel and Kadmon 1999; Sternberg and Shoshany 2001), where geomorphological variables are
298 determinant.

299 The current distribution patterns of coniferous species in our study area are largely defined by environmental
300 variables but anthropogenic activity, as grazing and fire, also affect in some way vegetation composition. This
301 finding agrees with those found by recent studies, which have examined the relationship between species
302 occurrence and species' ability to recover after disturbances (Màrcia et al. 2006; Angert et al. 2011). Indeed in
303 our study area, which is affected by irregular grazing and recurrence fire, we observed that vegetation
304 corresponds to fire-prone shrub communities and mixed scrubland in different degradation stages (with the
305 significant presence of *T. articulata*). Many plant species in highly disturbed areas have life-history traits that
306 determine their post-fire establishment patterns (Syphard and Franklin 2010); e.g., the fire-surviving strategy of
307 *P. halepensis* is characterised by its stand resilience and its post-fire seeding from serotinous cones, while *T.*
308 *articulata* adapts a post-fire dual strategy by both resprouting and seedling germination from soil seed banks
309 (López Hernández et al. 1995). This could have favoured these two species in fire-prone areas over the maritime
310 *J. phoenicea* species, which show lower post-fire survival (Rupprecht et al. 2011). Fire has a contrasting effect
311 on species according to its intensity and frequency. High fire frequency might limit the presence of *P.*
312 *halepensis*, but promotes *T. articulata* (Màrcia et al. 2006). It is well-known that *P. halepensis* regenerates well
313 after fire, but its regeneration can be threatened if the time between fires is shorter than the time needed to
314 replenish its seed bank (Baeza et al. 2007). We also found accompanying shrubs typical of vegetation types
315 resulting from fire recurrence; e.g., *Cistus albidus*, *C. monspelliensis*, *C. ladanifer*, *E. multiflora* and *R.*
316 *officinalis* (Santana et al. 2010). These are seeding species characterised by a persistent soil seedbank that
317 experience a flush of germination and establishment after fire (Santana et al. 2013). It is noteworthy that we
318 found the maximum *J. phoenicea* distribution in areas where fire is present, despite this species being considered
319 poorly fire-resilient (Lloret and Vilà 2003). This species does not regenerate by either resprouting or seeding
320 after fire, but its regeneration depends on bird-dispersed seeds from unburned patches (Lloret and Vilà 2003).
321 This is surprising, but could be explained by the coincidence of its optimal habitat with the area where

322 anthropogenic fires are more frequent (i.e., close to the sea where the population is larger). If fires are not large
323 and catastrophic in dimension, this species may persist by colonising from neighbouring unburned patches.
324 Finally, grazing pressure was also a determinant factor in vegetation composition. Overgrazing decreased the
325 presence of all coniferous species studied; however, grazing at intermediate values enhanced *J. phoenicea* and *T.*
326 *articulata*. Some herbaceous species like *B. rubens* and *P. lagopus* were also favoured by this disturbance. This
327 results are in line with “Intermediate Disturbance Hypothesis” (Connell, 1978), where too little disturbance leads
328 to low diversity through competitive exclusion and too much disturbance eliminates species incapables of rapid
329 re-colonization (Wilkinson 1999). Therefore, it is important to be able to estimate the thresholds under which
330 grazing may be applied without causing degradation, taking also into account that it can synergistically act as
331 degradation factor in combination with fire (Calvo et al. 2012). For example, it is well documented in other
332 Mediterranean countries, such as Greece and Israel, that fire is used by shepherds as a tool for improving pasture
333 lands (Perevolotsky et al. 2002; Papanastasis 2004). However, the abuse of this technique can lead to soil and
334 vegetation degradation problems (Calvo et al. 2012). It is fundamental, thus, to ascertain if these anthropic
335 degradation loops are present in Algerian ecosystems as well as to design sustainable management actions.

336 It should be borne in mind that the present coniferous distribution may sustain modifications in future climate
337 scenarios, where warmer and drier environmental conditions are predicted for the Mediterranean Region (IPCC
338 2014). Future warming and less rainfall may affect the vegetation in this region and displacements will probably
339 take place, but also because forest fires are likely to intensify (Angert et al. 2011). The range of the studied
340 coniferous species is predicted to intensely and rapidly reduce, and will probably migrate in both altitude and
341 latitude (Keenan et al. 2011). The species with the most continental distribution, e.g., *J. oxycedrus*, would be
342 seriously threatened by niche narrowing. However, those with narrower continental ranges (*P. halepensis* and *T.*
343 *articulata*) might be capable of maintaining some of their distribution area, and even with a certain degree of
344 expansion (Esteve-Selma et al. 2012). This is in line with a study performed about the distribution of Iberian tree
345 species, which predicted that *P. halepensis* would be capable of increasing its occupied area in 2020 (Benito
346 Garzón et al. 2008).

347

348 4.2 Management implications

349 Coniferous distribution in drylands is affected by both ecological and anthropogenic factors. Climate is the main
350 driver of the studied coniferous species, while geomorphic gradients (slope) and disturbance (fire and grazing)
351 are secondary, but important. The complexity of the inter-relations between these factors and coniferous species

352 demands further research, including long-term monitoring, to assess the vegetation dynamics and transitions
353 from one vegetation type to another. The relict coniferous forests in the southern Mediterranean Basin are
354 subjected to deforestation as a result of anthropogenic pressure, and *in situ* conservation is hence required. This
355 research establishes that most coniferous species (*T. articulata*, *J. oxycedrus* and *J. phoenicea*) are characterised
356 by very disjunctive areas. This regional distribution is known in only a few areas of Algeria and the
357 Mediterranean Basin, and therefore highlights the importance of this study to be extrapolated to other degraded
358 areas. In fact, regression in the availability of these species' natural habitat has led them to be considered
359 endangered in Algeria. For this reason, protection by proper legislation of these species and associated
360 ecosystems in Algeria, along with the development of effective management plans, should be made a priority.
361 Unfortunately in the present-day, these species do not occupy a prominent place in forestry interventions as
362 ongoing projects in this region focus mainly on *P. halepensis*, which have shown a low success rate, or even
363 centre on species that are not native to the Mediterranean Basin (*Eucalyptus*, sp, *Cupressus* sp.). Our results
364 could be used to propose management guidelines for the conservation of locally threatened coniferous species
365 and to encourage their reforestation. In short, we describe optimal environmental conditions and areas to develop
366 these management plans for each individual species. Our study also shows that vegetation drivers may differ
367 between Northern and Southern Mediterranean countries. While in Northern countries fire is an important
368 degradation factor (Santana et al. 2010), in the case of Northern Algeria other factors related to the
369 overexploitation of natural resources such as intense agriculture, wood gathering and grazing can also be a
370 source of degradation (Taïqui and Martin, 1997; Hadjadj Aoual 2009).

371

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380

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521 **TABLES:**

522 **Table 1.** Study sites in North West Algeria ordinated depending on distance to the Mediterranean Sea. The table
 523 includes a description of sampling sites, including: Alt: altitude, DS: distance from the sea, VC: vegetation cover,
 524 Slp: slope, Asp: aspect (1: north, 2: east, 3: west, 4: south); P: average annual precipitation, M: minimum
 525 temperature of the coldest month, Sn: snow (0: absent, 1:1-3 days, 2: 3-7 days, 3: >7 days), DI: Debrach's index,
 526 Fire (0: absent, 1: frequent), Graz: Grazing (0: absent, 1: frequent, 2: overgrazing), Sub: substratum (1: siliceous,
 527 2: limestone).

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| Site | Alt (m) | DS (km) | VC (%) | Slp (°) | Asp | P (mm) | M (°C) | Sn (days y ⁻¹) | DI (°C) | Fire | Graz | Sub |
|-------------------|------------|------------|-----------|------------|-----|-----------|-----------|-------------------------------|------------|------|------|-----|
| Rechgoun | 190 | 0.02 | 40 | 10 | 1 | 350 | 10.04 | 0 | 21.21 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Beni saf | 150 | 0.2 | 30 | 15 | 1 | 350 | 10.04 | 0 | 21.21 | 0 | 2 | 1 |
| Marsat Ben M'hidi | 80 | 0.6 | 60 | 25 | 1 | 340 | 10.93 | 0 | 19.57 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Ghazaouet | 190 | 2.7 | 70 | 20 | 4 | 332 | 8.4 | 1 | 24.12 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Honaine | 100 | 4.2 | 40 | 15 | 2 | 350 | 7.9 | 1 | 21.9 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| OuedSbaa | 300 | 11.8 | 70 | 25 | 1 | 360 | 6.26 | 1 | 19.94 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Nedroma | 480 | 12.4 | 50 | 15 | 1 | 380 | 6.12 | 2 | 21.08 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Maghnia | 370 | 29.5 | 30 | 25 | 2 | 288 | 1.92 | 1 | 34.3 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Hafir | 1160 | 46 | 70 | 30 | 4 | 484 | 3.2 | 3 | 28.7 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Tlemcen | 1050 | 48 | 70 | 35 | 1 | 460 | 4.8 | 3 | 29.4 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| OuedLakhdar | 800 | 55.5 | 50 | 20 | 1 | 320 | 4.4 | 2 | 32.6 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| OuledMimoun | 710 | 60.5 | 40 | 15 | 2 | 254 | 4.2 | 2 | 34.8 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Sebdou | 1130 | 70 | 40 | 15 | 3 | 295 | 2.6 | 3 | 28.1 | 0 | 2 | 1 |
| OuedSlissen | 1180 | 73 | 50 | 25 | 3 | 316 | 3.5 | 2 | 28.7 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

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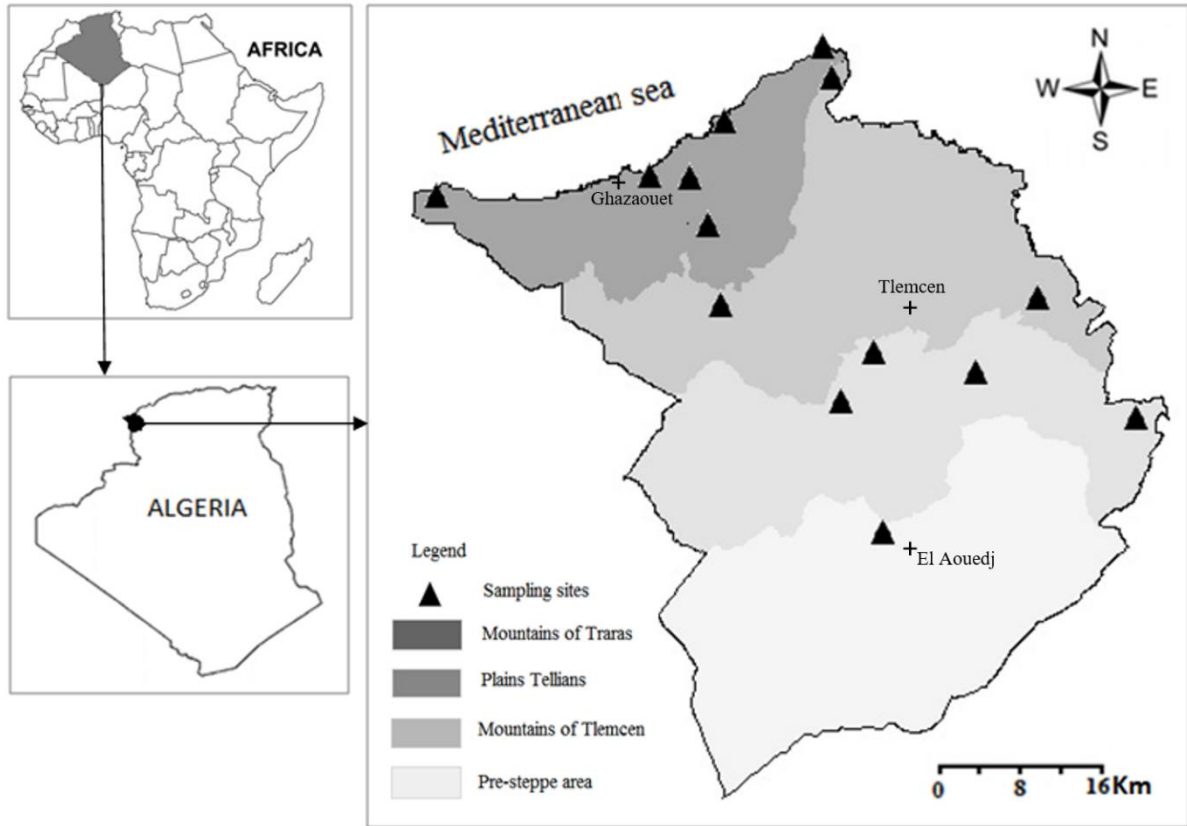
552 **Table 2.** Environmental variables fitted passively to the two first axes of the DCA ordination. Correlation with
553 the first two axes, squared correlation coefficient (R^2) and P -value are shown for each variable.

| 554 | 555 | Variables | DCA 1 | DCA 2 | R² | P |
|-----|-----|------------------|--------------|--------------|----------------------|----------|
| 556 | | Grazing | -0.191 | 0.981 | 0.18 | <0.001 |
| 557 | | Elevation | 0.981 | 0.191 | 0.55 | <0.001 |
| 558 | | Slope | 0.999 | 0.038 | 0.08 | 0.002 |
| 559 | | Fire | -0.977 | -0.212 | 0.13 | <0.001 |
| 560 | | Precipitation | 0.880 | -0.475 | 0.09 | <0.001 |
| 561 | | Aspect | 0.360 | 0.932 | 0.08 | <0.001 |
| 562 | | Substratum | 0.617 | 0.786 | 0.11 | <0.001 |

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589 **FIGURES:**

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593 **Fig 1.** Localisation of the different sampling sites and major place names in the study area (Wilaya of Tlemcen,
594 North West Algeria).
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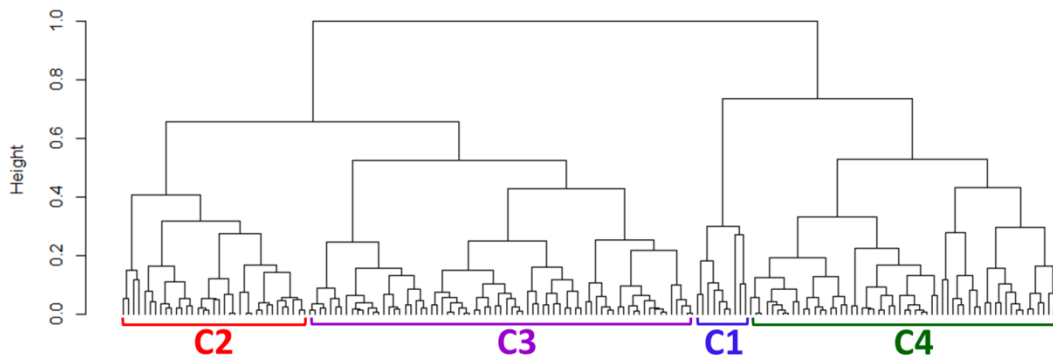
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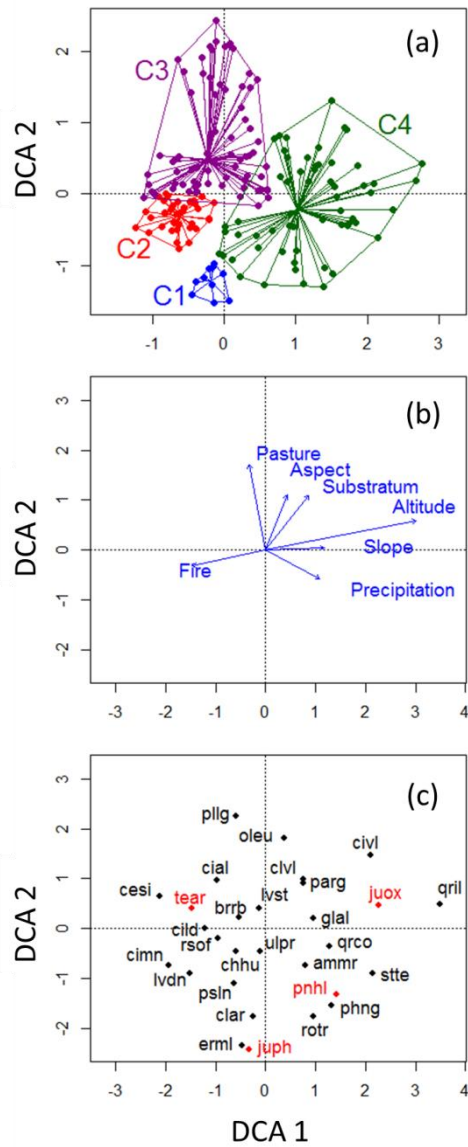
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Fig 2. Community type classification derived after cluster analysis on the sample-plots scores of the first two DCA axes. Four main community types are depicted for the 177 study sites in North West Algeria.



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628 **Fig 3.** DCA ordination plots showing: (a) the position of the 177 sampling plots within the described community

629 types. Each community is defined by the convex hull formed by sites composing them and their corresponding

630 centroid. (b) Environmental variables fitted passively to the two first DCA axes. Longer vector lines represent

631 stronger correlations. (c) Most frequent species found in the study area. Species code: ammr= *Ampelodesmus*

632 *mauritanica*, brrb= *Bromus rubens*, cial= *Cistus albidus*, cesi= *Ceratonia siliqua*, cild= *Cistus ladaniferus*, civl=

633 *Cistus villosus*, clvl= *Calicotome villosa*, chhu= *Chamaerops humilis*, cimn= *Cistus monspeliensis*, clar=

634 *Cladanthus arabicus*, erml= *Erica multiflora*, glal= *Globularia alypum*, juox= *Juniperus oxycedrus*, juph=

635 *Juniperus phoenicea*, lvst= *Lavandula stoechas*, lvdn= *Lavandula dentata*, oleu= *Olea europaea*, parg=

636 *Paronychia argentea*, pllq= *Plantago lagopus*, pnhl= *Pinus halepensis*, phng= *Phillyrea angustifolia*, psln=

637 *Pistacia lentiscus*, qril= *Quercus ilex*, qrco= *Quercus coccifera*, rotr= *Rosmarinus tournefortii*, rsof= *Rosmarinus*
638 *officinalis*, stte= *Stipa tenacissima*, tear= *Tetraclinis articulate*, ulpr= *Ulex parviflorus*.

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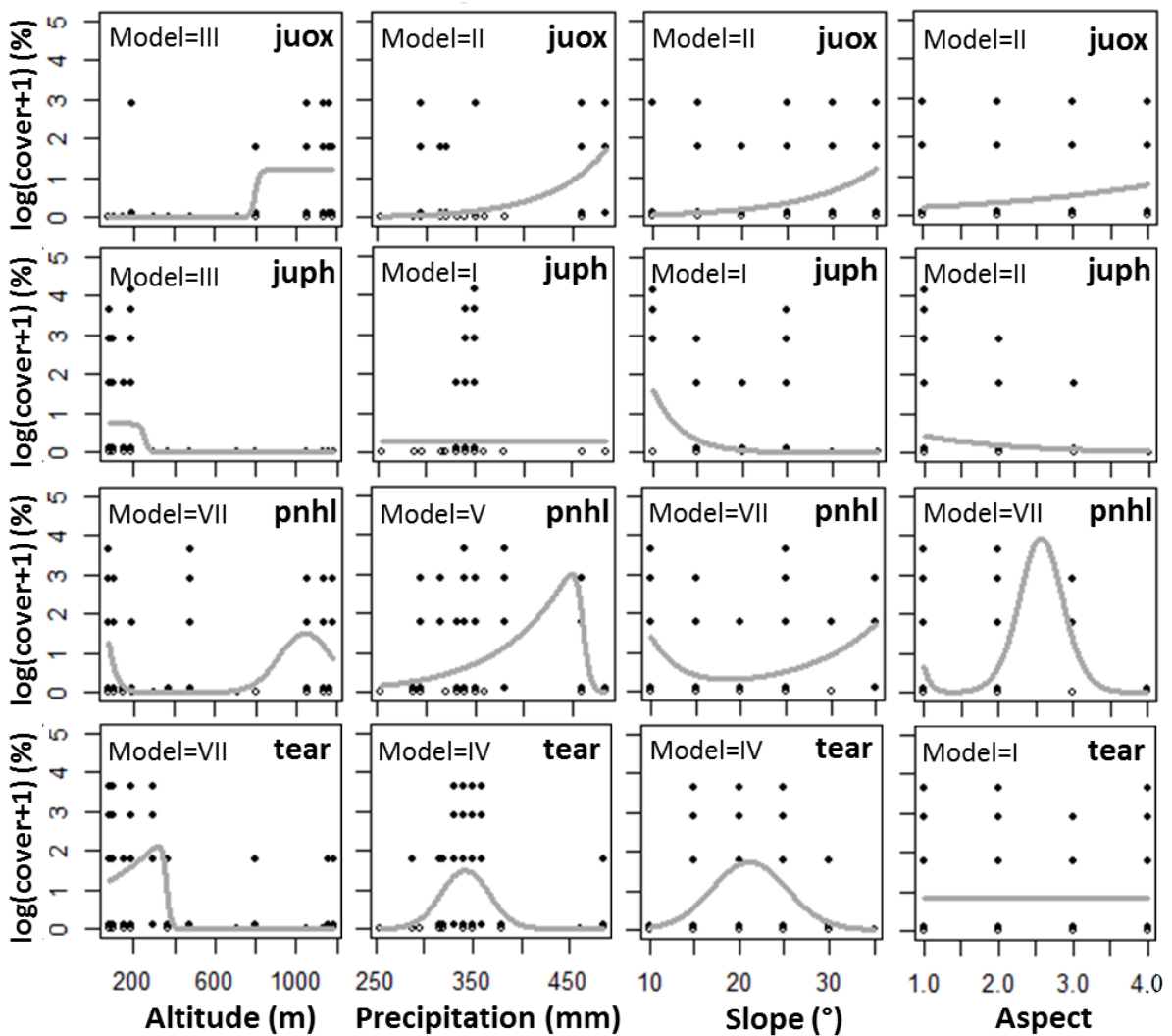
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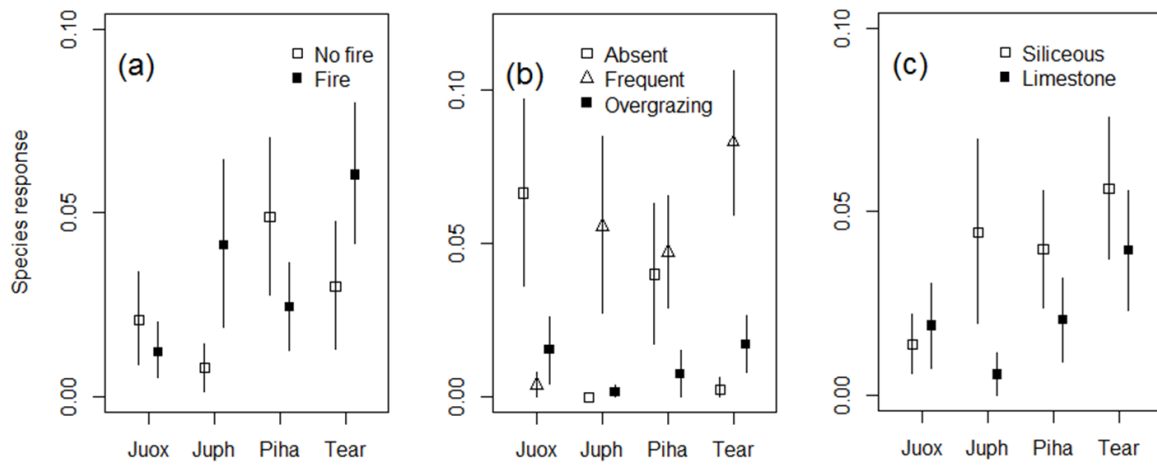
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Fig 4. Huisman-Olf-Fresco (HOF) models for the four dominant coniferous species in relation to the most relevant environmental variables. juox = *J. oxycedrus*, juph = *J. phoenicea*, pnhl = *P. halepensis* and tear = *T. articulata*. Aspect shows an increasing gradient of aridity (1: north, 2: east, 3: west, 4: south).



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Fig 5. Species response to (a) fire and (b) grazing pressure and (c) substratum. Error lines indicate the 95%

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confidence interval assessed by bootstrapping.



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