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5 2 **Effects of *Quercus suber* decline on woody plant regeneration: potential implications for**
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7 3 **successional dynamics in Mediterranean forests**
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11 5 **Shortened Title: Successional dynamics in declining forests**
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3 15 **Abstract**
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5 16 In the last decades widespread tree decline and mortality has been documented in forests
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7 17 worldwide. These mortality events usually show certain level of host-specificity, translating
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9 18 into rapid changes in the relative abundance of the adult community. Despite these short-term
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11 19 changes, it is poorly understood whether the decline and mortality of certain tree species are
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13 20 likely to result in long-term vegetation shifts. Trajectories of forest recovery and the
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15 21 probability of occurrence of permanent vegetation shifts are to a large extent determined by
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17 22 post-mortality regeneration dynamics. Using a spatially-explicit neighborhood approach we
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19 23 evaluated the spatial patterns of natural regeneration of the woody plant community in mixed
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21 24 Mediterranean forests affected by the decline of their dominant tree species, *Quercus suber*.
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23 25 We predicted the abundance, survival and richness of the seedling and sapling bank as a
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25 26 function of the distribution and health status of the tree and shrub community. Results
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27 27 indicated that *Q. suber* decline had detectable effects on seedlings and saplings of coexistent
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29 28 woody species from very different functional groups (trees, shrubs and lianas). The sign and
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31 29 magnitude of these effects varied substantially among coexistent species, which could imply
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33 30 shifts in the species ranking of seedling and sapling abundance, affecting successional
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35 31 trajectories and potentially leading to vegetation shifts. Because most of these changes
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37 32 pointed towards a loss of dominance of *Q. suber*, management strategies are urgently needed
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39 33 in order to attenuate adult mortality or promote its regeneration, counteracting the negative
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41 34 effects of global change drivers (exotic pathogens, climate change) on these valuable forests.
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49 36 *Key words:* disturbance, global change, Mediterranean forests, neighborhood models,
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51 37 seedling and sapling bank, succession, tree dieback.
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38 Introduction

39 Over the last two decades widespread tree decline and mortality has been documented in
40 forests of almost every bioregion of the world (Allen et al., 2010, 2015; Breshears et al.,
41 2009; Van Mantgem et al., 2009). Several global change drivers have been identified as
42 potential causes, such as increasing drought frequency and severity, recurrent pest outbreaks
43 or the spread of exotic pathogens (e.g. Axelson et al., 2009; Carnicer et al., 2011; Loo, 2009).
44 A common feature to these mortality processes is that they usually show certain level of host-
45 specificity, some tree species being much more vulnerable to abiotic and biotic sources of
46 stress than others. As a result, they have a large potential to induce selective species removals
47 and changes in community composition (Allen and Breshears, 1998; Collins et al., 2011). For
48 example, in semi-arid *Pinus edulis-Juniperus monosperma* woodlands of southwestern USA,
49 recent severe droughts have induced a shift towards *Juniperus* dominated communities due to
50 the higher drought tolerance of this species (Koepke et al., 2010; Mueller et al., 2005). In
51 coastal California forests, the emerging pathogen *Phytophthora ramorum* has caused a rapid
52 decline of *Notholithocarpus densiflorus* and an increase in the relative dominance of
53 coexisting *Umbellularia californica* or *Sequoia sempervirens* (Brown and Allen-Diaz, 2009;
54 Ramage et al., 2012). In Australian forests, the largest susceptibility to both drought and
55 pathogens of the *Eucalyptus* genus compared to the co-dominant *Corymbia* genus has lead to
56 severe alterations in the relative dominance of coexisting tree species (Fensham and Holman,
57 1999, Cahill et al., 2003). However, despite this evidence for rapid changes in the relative
58 abundance of the adult community, we still have limited information on trajectories of forest
59 recovery after tree decline and mortality and whether they are likely to result in long-term
60 vegetation shifts.

61 The probability of occurrence of permanent vegetation shifts is to a large extent
62 determined by regeneration dynamics after tree dieback (Galiano et al., 2013; Kayes and

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3 63 Tinker, 2012; Redmond and Barger, 2013; Suarez and Kitzberger, 2008). Tree defoliation
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5 64 and mortality can induce a series of changes in local environmental conditions that alters the
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7 65 probability of establishment of new tree seedlings, inducing shifts of species abundance
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9 66 rankings in the seedling bank. For example, an increase in radiation levels and drought stress
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11 67 in the gaps opened after tree death could preclude the establishment of late-successional
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13 68 shade-tolerant species, indirectly favoring pioneer drought-tolerant species (Amoroso et al.,
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15 69 2012; Diskin et al., 2011, Ibáñez et al., 2015). It has also been shown that trajectories of
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17 70 recovery after drought- or insect-driven tree mortality might depend not only on new seedling
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19 71 establishment, but also even more strongly on advance regeneration established prior to the
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21 72 disturbance (Collins et al., 2011; Kayes and Tinker, 2012; Redmond and Barger, 2013). For
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23 73 example, tree dieback in mature forests could release suppressed saplings of shade-tolerant
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25 74 species, allowing late-successional species to keep dominating the stands and indirectly
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27 75 limiting the establishment of light-demanding pioneer species otherwise typical of disturbed
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29 76 sites (DeRose and Long, 2010; Veblen et al., 1991). These examples illustrate the
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31 77 complexities inherent to post-mortality regeneration dynamics, with seedlings and saplings of
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33 78 different ages likely responding in different ways (e.g. Galiano et al., 2013), and show the
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35 79 need for further research that helps to elucidate long-term changes in stand composition of
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37 80 disturbed forests.

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42 81 In this study we analyzed the spatial patterns of natural regeneration of the woody
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44 82 plant community in mixed oak forests of southwestern Spain affected by the decline of its
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46 83 dominant tree species, *Quercus suber*. Our main objective was to elucidate whether the
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48 84 abundance and performance of seedlings and saplings of coexistent shrub and tree species
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50 85 varied depending on the composition and health status of neighboring trees, and whether
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52 86 differential responses among species in the regeneration bank could eventually lead to
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54 87 changes in species dominance at the canopy level. The decline of *Q. suber* has been reported
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3 88 throughout the Mediterranean Basin since the early 1990s (Brasier, 1992; Brasier, 1996),
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5 89 where tree death has occurred progressively along time forming stands of dead trees. Several
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7 90 abiotic (e.g. extreme droughts) and biotic (e.g. insects and pathogens) factors are potentially
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9 91 involved in this decline (Tuset and Sánchez, 2004). However, in the study area, oomycete
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11 92 soil-borne pathogens (*Phytophthora cinnamomi* and *Pythium spiculum*) have been isolated
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13 93 from symptomatic *Q. suber* trees and are suggested to be the main drivers of the species
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15 94 decline (Brasier, 1996; Romero et al., 2007; Sánchez et al., 2006; Sánchez et al., 2002). For
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17 95 the analysis of natural regeneration patterns, we used a spatially-explicit neighborhood
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19 96 approach (Canham and Uriarte, 2006; Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2008a; Gómez-Aparicio et al.,
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21 97 2008b) where the abundance, survival and richness of the seedling and sapling bank was
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23 98 predicted as a function of the distribution and health status of the canopy tree and shrub
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25 99 community. Previous studies in the same study area have shown *Q. suber* to suffer from
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27 100 stronger recruitment limitation than coexistent trees or arborescent shrubs (Pérez-Ramos and
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29 101 Marañón, 2012), mainly due to heavy post-dispersal seed predation and high seedling
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31 102 mortality due to summer drought (Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2008b; Pérez-Ramos and Marañón,
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33 103 2008). Moreover, in a parallel experimental study, *where seeds of Q. suber and Q.*
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35 104 *canariensis were sown and the recruits were monitored for 3 years*, we found that defoliated
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37 105 and dead *Q. suber* trees generated unsuitable microsites for survival of conspecific seedlings
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39 106 likely due to drought stress and/or high pathogen abundance (Ibáñez et al., 2015). Following
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41 107 this, we hypothesized that the process of *Q. suber* decline might cause the seedling/sapling
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43 108 bank to become even less *Q. suber* dominated, hampering the potential for self-replacement
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45 109 and favoring successional trajectories towards forests dominated by other co-existing woody
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56 112 **Material and Methods**

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113 STUDY SITES AND SPECIES

114 The study was conducted in Los Alcornocales Natural Park, a 170 000 ha protected area in
115 Southwestern Spain. The climate is Mediterranean type, with cold and humid winters and
116 warm and dry summers. Mean annual temperature varies from 14.6 to 18.4 °C, with a mean
117 monthly maximum of 36°C (July) and a mean monthly minimum of 2.8°C (January). Mean
118 annual precipitation is 975 mm (mean 1951–1999). The bedrock is dominated by Oligo-
119 Miocene sandstone and originates acidic, nutrient-poor, sandy soils, frequently interspersed
120 with clayish soils derived from layers of marl sediments. Our study was carried out during
121 three consecutive years (2010, 2011 and 2012) which exhibited contrasted climatological
122 conditions. The year 2010 was extremely wet in terms of precipitation (1346 mm annual
123 rainfall, 40 mm summer rainfall), 2011 had an average precipitation (1037 mm annual
124 rainfall, 16 mm summer rainfall) and 2012 was particularly dry (474 mm annual rainfall, 0
125 mm summer rainfall).

126 The flora in the Alcornocales Natural Park is dominated by mixed sclerophyll forests
127 of *Q. suber*, located mainly on non-carbonated soils, at altitudes between 100-700 m a.s.l..
128 Within the park the structure of the forests and its diversity vary depending on orography and
129 soil type. In low altitude sites with clayish soils, *Q. suber* forms mixed open woodlands with
130 the evergreen drought-tolerant *Olea europaea* var. *sylvestris*. The shrub layer in these
131 woodlands is usually dense and largely dominated by the evergreen *Pistacia lentiscus* L. and
132 the deciduous *Crataegus monogyna* Jacq. In sandier, moister and colder sites *Q. suber*
133 coexists with the deciduous, shade-tolerant *Quercus canariensis* forming closed forests. The
134 shrubby understory is diverse and dominated by arborescent shrubs (*Arbutus unedo* L.,
135 *Phillyrea latifolia* L.) and heath species (*Erica arborea* L., *Erica scoparia* L.) (Ojeda et al.,
136 1996). These forests are relatively well conserved since 1989 (declared as Natural Park), and

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3 137 the main management activities are the extraction of cork, game hunting and recreation
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5 138 (Anonymous, 2005).

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9 140 FIELD SAMPLING

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11 141 The field work was conducted in six study sites within the Natural Park. Three of the sites
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13 142 were located in open woodlands of *Q. suber* and *O. europaea* var. *sylvestris* (hereafter
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15 143 woodland sites) and three in closed forests of *Q. suber* and *Q. canariensis* (hereafter closed
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17 144 forest sites). The six sites covered a gradient of climate and soil conditions (see Table A in
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19 145 Supplementary Material). During winter 2009, we established a 70 x 70 m plot at each of the
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21 146 six study sites. Each plot was subdivided in 49 10 x 10 m subplots. Within each of the 49
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23 147 subplots, a smaller 1 x 1 m quadrat was permanently set up for monitoring of natural
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25 148 regeneration (n = 147 sampling quadrats per forest type, 294 quadrats in total).

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27 149 During early June in 2010, 2011 and 2012 we counted and marked all the seedlings
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29 150 (i.e. individuals emerged that spring) and saplings (i.e. > 1 year-old individuals smaller than
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31 151 50 cm height) of woody species in each of the 1 m² sampling quadrats. We chose this
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33 152 sampling date to ensure that most seedlings had emerged (Pérez-Ramos and Marañón, 2012).
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35 153 Additionally, seedlings and saplings of tree species were revisited in early October 2010 and
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37 154 October 2011 to record survival after the summer, the main mortality period in Mediterranean
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39 155 systems (Gómez-Aparicio 2008; Pérez-Ramos et al. 2012). We also calculated species
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41 156 richness for each quadrat as the number of different woody plant species censured at seedling
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43 157 or sapling stage. Due to the low growth rates of oak species in Mediterranean systems and
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45 158 their resprouting ability, saplings smaller than 50 cm height can be as old as 30 years
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47 159 (Galiano et al., 2013). Therefore, the sapling bank could represent the regeneration
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49 160 accumulated during the last decades and even before the first report of *Q. suber* decline in the
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51 161 area (Brasier, 1992; Brasier, 1996).

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3 162 To characterize the local neighborhood of each plot, we identified and mapped all live
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5 163 and standing dead trees with a diameter at breast height (dbh) > 2 cm and all shrubs in the 70
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7 164 x 70 m permanent plots, as well as in a buffer zone 15-m (for trees) or 5-m (for shrubs) wide
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9 165 around each plot. Tree neighborhoods of similar size have been shown to capture the most
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11 166 important aspects of neighborhood interactions in temperate forests (Coates et al., 2009;
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13 167 Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2008a). Although we did not have any reference to choose the
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15 168 maximum shrub neighborhood, we considered a radius of 5 m to be big enough based on the
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17 169 small size of most shrubs in these forests (height usually < 3 m) (Gómez-Aparicio et al.,
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19 170 2012). We measured the dbh of each of the trees mapped (n = 1341 trees). Due to its multi-
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21 171 stem growth form, shrub size was characterized measuring the two diameters of the elliptical
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23 172 projection of its crown (n = 3005 shrubs). In addition, we visually evaluated the crown health
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25 173 status of *Quercus suber*, with a standardized semi-quantitative scale used routinely for
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27 174 monitoring purposes of oak decline (García et al., 2011): (1) healthy reference trees; (2)
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29 175 defoliated trees; and (3) dead trees. No other tree or shrub species in the study area showed
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31 176 symptoms of decline.
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38 178 DATA ANALYSIS

39 179 *Neighborhood models of seedling and sapling performance and richness*

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41 180 We used likelihood methods and model selection for the analysis of our data (Canham and
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43 181 Uriarte, 2006; Johnson and Omland, 2004). Following the principles of likelihood estimation,
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45 182 we estimated model parameters that maximized the likelihood of observing the data measured
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47 183 in the field. We fit separate models for each combination of dependent variables (abundance,
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49 184 survival, and richness), life-stage (seedling and sapling), forest type (woodland and closed
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51 185 forest), and woody species/functional group. The dominant tree species were analyzed
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53 186 separately (*Q. suber*, *O. europaea* and *Q. canariensis*), whereas the remaining woody species
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3 187 were divided in three groups according to their life-form and dispersal syndrome: fleshy-
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5 188 fruited shrubs (with endozoochorous dispersal), dry-fruited shrubs (with dispersal syndromes
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7 189 other than endozoochory, mainly abiotic dispersal) and lianas (Table B in Supplementary
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12 191 Our full regeneration model predicted mean seedling/sapling performance in each
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14 192 quadrat as a function of three components: 1) the potential seedling/sapling performance at
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16 193 each of the three study sites for each forest type in the absence of specific effects of
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18 194 neighboring trees (i.e. site effects); 2) the identity, size, health status and spatial distribution
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20 195 of the trees in the neighborhood (i.e. tree neighborhood effects); and 3) the size and spatial
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22 196 distribution of shrubs in the neighborhood (i.e. shrub neighborhood effects). We tested and
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24 197 compared two different model frameworks (additive vs. multiplicative) to describe neighbor
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26 198 effects (e.g. Baribault and Kobe, 2011):
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32 200 Additive model
$$Y = a_{\text{Site}} + b_{\text{Year}} * NI_{\text{Tree}} + c_{\text{Year}} * NI_{\text{Shrub}} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

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34 201 Multiplicative model
$$Y = a_{\text{Site}} * \exp(b_{\text{Year}} * NI_{\text{Tree}}) * \exp(c_{\text{Year}} * NI_{\text{Shrub}}) + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

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38 203 The first term in the models, a_{Site} , represents the site effects. The second term accounts
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40 204 for the tree neighborhood effects, which are assumed to vary as a function of a *neighborhood*
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42 205 *index* (NI_{Tree}). The parameter b defines the steepness of the variation in performance due to
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44 206 an increment in NI_{Tree} and was allowed to vary between years to account for inter-annual
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46 207 differences in tree effects. The tree neighborhood index quantifies the net effect of $j=1, \dots, n$
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48 208 neighboring trees of $i=1, \dots, s$ species on seedling/sapling abundance, survival or richness, and
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50 209 was assumed to vary as a direct function of the size (dbh) and as an inverse function of the
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52 210 distance to neighbors:
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$$NI_{Tree_{ij}} = \sum_{i=1}^s \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_i \frac{dbh_{ij}^{\alpha}}{dist_{ij}^{\beta}} \quad (3)$$

where dbh_{ij} is diameter at breast height, $dist_{ij}$ is the distance to the sampling quadrat of the j th neighboring tree of the i th species, and α and β are estimated parameters that determine the shape of the effect of the dbh (α) and the distance to neighbors (β) on the target variable. We used NI standardized ($0 < NI_i / NI_{\max} < 1$) to facilitate comparisons across different seedling/sapling species. Because we were particularly interested in exploring whether tree effects varied between individuals of different species or health status, we grouped tree neighbors in four categories: healthy *Q. suber* trees, defoliated *Q. suber* trees, dead *Q. suber* trees, and the coexisting tree species at each site (*O. europaea* or *Q. canariensis*). We initially considered two categories of defoliated trees (<50% and > 50% defoliation, see Gómez-Aparicio et al., 2012 for a similar approach), but since they had similar effects on regeneration we decided to merge them in just one category for simplicity. We then multiplied the net effect of an individual tree by a *per-capita* coefficient (λ), one for each category (estimating therefore four different λ values), that ranged from -1 to 1 and allowed for differences between neighbors in their effects (negative or positive) on the target variable.

The third term in equations 1 and 2 accounts for shrub neighborhood effects, and were calculated as a function of a shrub neighborhood index (NI_{Shrub}). The parameter c defines the steepness of the variation in performance due to an increment in NI_{Shrub} , and was allowed to vary between years to account for inter-annual differences in shrub effects. This index is a simplified version of the tree neighborhood index, and quantifies the net effect of $j=1, \dots, n$ neighboring shrubs on seedling/sapling abundance, survival or richness following the form:

$$NI_{Shrub_j} = \sum_{j=1}^n area_j \quad (4)$$

The NI_{Shrub} was assumed to vary just as a direct function of the size (crown area) of neighbor shrubs in a 5-m radius neighborhood. We decided not to include distance in the calculation of

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3 235 the index given the already restricted area over which shrubs were mapped and to keep the
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5 236 number of parameters in the models manageable.

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9 238 *Parameter estimation and model selection*

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11 239 Because our main interest was to compare the effect of trees of different species and health
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13 240 status on regeneration, we first fit a simple model where only Tree neighborhood effects were
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15 241 considered (“Only tree” model). We then compared this simple model with more complicated
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17 242 models that included Site, Year or Shrub effects, finally selecting the simplest model that was
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19 243 not a significantly worse fit than any more complicated model. Additive and multiplicative
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21 244 models with the same number of parameters were also compared among them. We used the
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23 245 Akaike Information Criterion corrected for small sample sizes (AIC_c) to select the best
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25 246 model, with lower AIC_c values indicating stronger empirical support for a model (Burnham
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27 247 and Anderson, 2002). We solved for the maximum likelihood parameter values with
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29 248 simulated annealing (Goffe et al., 1994), a global optimization procedure. The likelihood
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31 249 functions used in our models varied according to the data. We used a negative binomial
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33 250 function to model the abundance data (counts) accounting for over-dispersion. We also
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35 251 tested the use of a zero-inflated Poisson distribution, but found the negative binomial to be
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37 252 more appropriate to the error distribution of our data. The survival data were binomial in
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39 253 nature, so a binomial distribution was used for the likelihood function of the corresponding
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41 254 models. Finally, the species richness data (counts) were adequately modeled using a Poisson
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43 255 likelihood function. We used asymptotic 2-unit support intervals (as an approximation to the
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45 256 95% confidence interval) to assess the strength of evidence for individual maximum
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47 257 likelihood parameter estimates (Edwards, 1992). Coefficients whose 2-unit support intervals
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49 258 did not include zero were considered statistically significant. The slope of the regression
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51 259 (with a zero intercept) of observed versus predicted was used to measure bias (with an
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3 260 unbiased model having a slope of 1). We explored model residuals (i.e. lack of patterns when
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5 261 represented against predicted values and independent variables, and lack of spatial
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7 262 autocorrelation [Mantel test, Legendre & Fortin 1989]) to finally validate the model. All
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9 263 analyses were performed using R (R Development Core Team, 2009) and the “likelihood”
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11 264 package (Murphy, 2012).
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266 **Results**

267 *Seedling and sapling abundance*

268 A total of 4514 seedlings and 1865 saplings of 21 woody species were counted during the
269 three sampling years at the six study sites (Table B in Supplementary Material). Due to the
270 scarcity of seedlings and saplings of dry-fruited shrubs, this group was only included in the
271 analysis of seedling abundance in woodland sites. All models produced unbiased estimates of
272 seedling and sapling abundance (slope ~1, Table 1), and did not show spatial autocorrelation
273 in their residuals with two exceptions (liana seedlings in woodlands and *Q. suber* saplings in
274 closed forests, Table C in Supplementary Material). It is important to highlight that
275 likelihood-based inference is very robust even in cases of lack of independence, with
276 deviations from independence mostly resulting in underestimates of variance terms but not in
277 biased parameters values. Both the additive and multiplicative approaches were used in best
278 models of seedling abundance, whereas most of the best models of sapling abundance
279 involved a multiplicative approach (Table 1). Most of the best models of seedling (7/9) and
280 sapling (7/8) abundance showed differences among the three sites in regeneration abundance.
281 All models detected tree neighborhood effects on seedling and sapling abundance, as
282 indicated by significant λ values for one or more neighbor categories (Tables D and E in
283 Supplementary Material). These effects did not vary among years (Table 1). Our models did
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3 284 not detect any effect of shrubs on seedling abundance, and only in one species (*Olea*
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5 285 *europaea*) for sapling abundance (Table 1).

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7 286 In general, seedling abundance was higher in healthy tree communities (as indicated
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9 287 by positive λ values) than in neighborhoods dominated by defoliated or dead trees (as
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11 288 indicated by neutral or negative λ values) (Table D in Supplementary Material, Fig. 1a,c,e,g,
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13 289 Fig. 2,a,c,e,g). However, the magnitude of the neighborhood effect varied among
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15 290 species/functional groups, causing shifts in rankings of species abundance among
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17 291 neighborhood types. In woodlands, *Olea* was the dominant seedling species in healthy tree
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19 292 neighborhoods (both conspecific and heterospecific), whereas *Q. suber* dominated the
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21 293 seedling bank in defoliated neighborhoods, and fleshy-fruited shrubs in dead neighborhoods
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23 294 (Fig. 1). In closed forests, lianas and (to a lesser extent) fleshy-fruited shrubs were the
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25 295 dominant groups in all type of neighborhoods (Fig. 2). Among tree species, *Q. suber* and *Q.*
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27 296 *canariensis* dominated their respective conspecific healthy neighborhoods, whereas the
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29 297 abundance of both species was virtually null in defoliated and dead *Q. suber* neighborhoods
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31 298 (Fig. 2e,g). In most neighborhood models of seedling abundance (7/9), the exponent α of the
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33 299 Neighborhood Index (which controls how neighbor effects scale with tree size, Eq. 3) took
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35 300 high values (> 2), indicating that the effect of neighboring trees scaled roughly with biomass
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37 301 (Table D in Supplementary Material). Low values of the β parameter (which controls the
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39 302 effect of distance to neighbors, Eq. 3) in most models indicated that neighbor effects on
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41 303 seedling abundance slightly decreased with distance (Table D in Supplementary Material).

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43 304 Sapling abundance of tree species was also generally lower in defoliated and dead
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45 305 neighborhoods than in healthy ones (Table E in Supplementary Material, Fig. 1b,d,f,h, Fig.
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47 306 2b,d,f,h). However, abundance of fleshy-fruited shrub and liana saplings was not negative
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49 307 affected by tree decline in most situations (as indicated by neutral or positive λ values; Table
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51 308 E in Supplementary Material). Shifts in rankings of species abundance among neighborhood
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3 309 types were also found in the sapling community. In woodland sites, whereas healthy
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5 310 neighborhoods of both *Q. suber* and *O. europaea* were dominated by conspecific saplings,
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7 311 the strong negative effects of defoliated and dead trees on *Q. suber* saplings (stronger than on
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9 312 any other species) caused these neighborhoods to be dominated by heterospecific *O.*
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11 313 *europaea* saplings (Fig. 1f,h). In closed forests, the sapling bank kept being dominated by
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13 314 lianas and fleshy-fruited shrubs in all type of neighborhoods (with the exception of fleshy-
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15 315 fruited shrubs in *Q. canariensis* neighborhoods). Among tree species, *Q. canariensis*
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17 316 dominated the sapling bank in conspecific neighborhoods and was also slightly more
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19 317 abundant than *Q. suber* in healthy *Q. suber* neighborhoods. However, *Q. suber* dominated the
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21 318 sapling bank in defoliated and dead neighborhoods likely as a result of stronger negative
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23 319 effects of decline (more negative λ values) on *Q. canariensis* than on *Q. suber* sapling
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25 320 abundance (Table E in Supplementary Material). In models of sapling abundance, the value
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27 321 of the α parameter was highly variable among species (Table E in Supplementary Material),
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29 322 whereas the β parameter was generally close to 0 indicating that abundance was mostly
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31 323 proportional to neighbor density.
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325 *Seedling and sapling survival*

326 All models produced unbiased estimates of tree seedling and sapling survival (slope ~ 1),
327 except for *O. europaea* and *Q. suber* seedlings in woodlands and closed forests (respectively)
328 where best models tended to overpredict (slope > 1 , Table 1). Model residuals did not show
329 spatial autocorrelation, except for *Q. canariensis* saplings (Table C in Supplementary
330 Material). In all cases additive models were a better fit to the data than multiplicative models.
331 Only 25% (2/8) of the best survival models found differences among sites in seedling and
332 sapling survival (Table 1). All models detected tree neighborhood effects on seedling and
333 sapling survival, as indicated by significant λ values of one or more neighbor categories

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3 334 (Table F, Figures H and I in Supplementary Material). These tree effects remained mostly
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5 335 constant among years, with three exceptions (*Q. suber* seedlings and *O. europaea* saplings in
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7 336 woodlands, *Q. suber* saplings in closed forests; Table 1). Our models did not detect any effect
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9 337 of shrubs on seedling survival (Table 1).

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11 338 In woodlands, neighbor effects on survival were of generally weak magnitude, as
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13 339 indicated by the low value of most significant λ (Table F in Supplementary Material).
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15 340 Moreover, the sign of the effects on *Q. suber* seedlings and *Olea* saplings varied among years
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17 341 (see sign of parameter b in Table F in Supplementary Material), with survival being higher in
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19 342 healthy than defoliated neighborhoods in 2010 (a very wet year) but lower in 2011 (a normal
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21 343 year in terms of rainfall). In closed forests, *Q. canariensis* neighborhoods had the most
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23 344 negative effect (lowest λ value, Table F in Supplementary Material) on seedling survival of
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25 345 the two oak species, followed by healthy *Q. suber* neighborhoods. Although seedling survival
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27 346 was lower in healthy than in declining *Q. suber* neighborhoods, sapling survival was higher
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29 347 (more positive λ values) in healthy neighborhoods. This was particularly true for *Q.*
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31 348 *canariensis* saplings, which suffered from strong negative effects of defoliated and dead
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33 349 neighbors (Table F in Supplementary Material). Values of parameters α and β in the
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35 350 Neighborhood Index (Eq. 3) showed a very high variability among best models of seedling
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37 351 and sapling survival (Table F in Supplementary Material).
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45 353 *Seedling and sapling richness*

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47 354 The two richness models produced unbiased estimates of species richness (slope ~ 1), but
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49 355 showed some spatial autocorrelation in their residuals (Table C in Supplementary Material).
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51 356 In both cases, an additive approach offered a better fit to the data than a multiplicative
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53 357 approach (Table 1). In woodlands, the best model detected an effect of the tree community on
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55 358 richness values, but did not find any site, year or shrub effects (Table 1). In this forest type,
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3 359 species richness was higher in healthy tree communities of *Quercus* and *Olea* (large positive
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5 360 λ values) than in neighborhoods dominated by defoliated and dead *Q. suber* trees (Table G,
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7 361 Figure J in Supplementary Material). In closed forests, the best model was the full model that
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9 362 considered the effect of all the factors tested. Thus, in this forest type richness varied among
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11 363 sites, was lower in *Q. canariensis* neighborhoods than in any *Q. suber* neighborhood (in all
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13 364 years but the dry 2012), and were positively affected by shrubs in the three study years (Table
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15 365 G, Figure J in Supplementary Material). Values of the α and β parameters in the
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17 366 Neighborhood Index of the two best richness models were roughly around 1, indicating that
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19 367 neighbor effects scaled with tree size (α) and declined as a simple inverse function of distance
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21 368 (β) (Table G in Supplementary Material).
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27 370 **Discussion**

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29 371 Our results indicated that the decline of *Q. suber* in Mediterranean forests had detectable
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31 372 effects on both new seedlings and older saplings of coexistent woody species belonging to
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33 373 very different functional groups (trees, shrubs and lianas). Thus, we found total and relative
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35 374 regeneration abundance (both within and among functional groups) to vary depending on the
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37 375 health status of the canopy cover. Our neighborhood approach provided a useful framework
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39 376 that integrates the myriad ways that canopy and seedling species interact under natural
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41 377 conditions helping in this way to improve our understanding of the consequences of tree
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43 378 decline and mortality for regeneration dynamics.
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48 380 *Patterns of natural regeneration in healthy tree neighborhoods*

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50 381 Healthy neighborhoods of the three dominant tree species in the study forests (*Q. suber*, *O.*
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52 382 *europaea*, and *Q. canariensis*) showed a tree seedling and sapling bank composed largely by
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54 383 conspecifics. It is interesting to note that the positive relationship found between abundance
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3 384 of conspecifics in the canopy and the seedling/sapling bank was stronger for new seedlings
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5 385 than for saplings (Fig. 1a,b for *O. europaea*, Fig. 2a,b for *Q. canariensis*, Fig. 2c,d for *Q.*
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7 386 *suber*). Stronger positive conspecific effects for seedlings than for saplings could indicate the
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9 387 existence of negative density-dependent processes from conspecifics acting at the seedling
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11 388 stage due to host-specialized antagonists (e.g. Janzen-Connell effects; Connell, 1971; Janzen,
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13 389 1970), intense competition for resources, or to the generation of unfavorable abiotic
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15 390 conditions (e.g. Bonanomi et al., 2008). Accordingly, we found negative effects of
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17 391 conspecific neighborhoods on seedling survival of the three tree species (negative λ values),
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19 392 in agreement with previous studies (Pérez-Ramos and Marañón, 2012, Ibáñez et al., 2015).
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21 393 Our results however suggest that the magnitude of these negative density-dependent
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23 394 processes on survival were not strong enough to counteract the high number of seedlings
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25 395 emerged in conspecific neighborhoods (Fig. 1a,b,c,d, Fig. 2a,b,c,d). High emergence values
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27 396 under conspecific trees are likely the result of dispersal patterns, with most seeds not being
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29 397 biotically dispersed and arriving under mother trees in both *Olea* (Rey and Alcántara, 2000)
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31 398 and *Quercus* species (Pulido and Díaz, 2005). For tree species in mixed forests, the existence
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33 399 of a conspecific sapling bank under adult canopies might be considered as a guarantee of self-
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35 400 replacement that could favor species coexistence (Catovsky and Bazzaz, 2002; Frelich and
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37 401 Reich, 1995; van Breemen and Finzi, 1998; Wilson and Agnew, 1992). Our results therefore
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39 402 suggest that, in the absence of disturbances, positive canopy-sapling feedbacks could lead to
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41 403 a rather stable stand structure. The process of *Q. suber* decline could however act as a
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43 404 destabilizing force of this structure through its impacts on the regeneration bank.
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52 406 *Effects of Quercus suber decline on natural regeneration*

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54 407 A clear consequence of *Q. suber* decline was a reduction in the absolute abundance of
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56 408 regeneration (both seedlings and saplings) in all tree species. The negative impact of *Q. suber*
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3 409 decline on tree species regeneration might explain the lower species richness found in
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5 410 declining neighborhoods at some sites (e.g. in woodlands). However, the magnitude of this
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7 411 effect varied substantially among co-dominant tree species. In woodland sites, the decline of
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9 412 *Q. suber* had a stronger negative effect on conspecific regeneration than on *O. europaea*
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11 413 regeneration, causing a shift in sapling relative abundance towards the dominance of *O.*
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13 414 *europaea*. Such among-species difference in the magnitude of the negative effects of decline
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15 415 could be due to the high abundance of *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (a soil-borne pathogen with
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17 416 high preference for *Q. suber*) under declining trees in woodlands (Gómez-Aparicio et al.,
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19 417 2012), or to the better capacity of drought-tolerant *O. europaea* seedlings to tolerate stressful
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21 418 abiotic conditions in gaps opened after tree death (e.g. high light levels and evaporation
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23 419 demand, Fetcher et al., 1985; Royer et al., 2011). Abiotic conditions in gaps might be
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25 420 considered to be particularly stressful in woodlands compared to closed forests, since their
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27 421 open structure and smaller tree size determined the formation of larger gaps after the death of
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29 422 individual trees. In closed forests, on the contrary, the somewhat weaker negative effect that
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31 423 *Q. suber* decline had on conspecific regeneration compared to *Q. canariensis* regeneration
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33 424 caused a shift in sapling relative abundance towards a slight advantage in dominance for *Q.*
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35 425 *suber*. This result was quite unexpected since, in a parallel experimental study where seeds of
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37 426 *Q. suber* and *Q. canariensis* were sown and the recruits monitored, we did not detect clear
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39 427 differences in the response of new seedlings and young saplings (2-3 years old) of the two
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41 428 oak species to neighborhoods of contrasting health (Ibáñez et al., 2015). Because the sapling
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43 429 bank in this study potentially included saplings much older than three years, it is possible that
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45 430 this result reflect the development of among-species differences with ontogeny, with older
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47 431 saplings of the shade-tolerant *Q. canariensis* being more impaired than those of *Q. suber* by
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49 432 the high light levels of the gaps open after tree death.
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3 433 Whereas the decline of *Q. suber* had important negative effects on abundance and
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5 434 performance of tree seedlings and saplings, other functional groups such as fleshy-fruited
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7 435 shrubs and lianas were more independent of the decline process and even benefited from it in
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9 436 some situations. These findings could be related to the fact that seedling survival of both
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11 437 lianas and fleshy-fruited shrubs has been shown to benefit from high-light microsites in the
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13 438 forest understory (Pérez-Ramos and Marañón, 2012), they are not reported to be affected by
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15 439 *P. cinnamomi*, and they are the dominant woody species recruiting in degraded forests (e.g.
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17 440 post-fire shrublands and reforested stands, Mendoza et al., 2009). Our results therefore
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19 441 suggest that the process of *Q. suber* decline could induce an increase in the relative
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21 442 abundance of functional forms other than trees in the woody community. This finding is in
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23 443 agreement with previous studies that have proposed a potential development of
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25 444 Mediterranean forests towards more open systems with lower tree cover and higher shrub
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27 445 dominance due to global environmental change (Acácio et al., 2007; Matías et al., 2012;
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29 446 Pérez-Ramos and Marañón, 2012).

33 34 447 35 36 448 *Implications for successional dynamics in declining forests*

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38 449 The effects of tree dieback on regeneration dynamics is probably one of the less studied
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40 450 aspects of forest die-off, particularly when compared with the abundance of studies exploring
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42 451 the physiological mechanisms underlying tree dieback or its impacts on ecosystem processes
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44 452 (McDowell et al., 2013). Among the scarce regeneration studies available, a large majority
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46 453 has focused on regeneration patterns after insect-decline mortality in mountain forests
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48 454 (Battles and Fahey, 2000; Collins et al., 2011; DeRose and Long, 2010; Kayes and Tinker,
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50 455 2012; Nigh et al., 2008; Veblen et al., 1991; Vyse et al., 2009), and to a lesser extent after
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52 456 temperature- or drought-driven mortality in water-limited systems (Galiano et al., 2013;
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54 457 Redmond and Barger, 2013; Van Mantgem and Stephenson, 2007). Here we show, for a
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3 458 complex system involving water-limited forests affected by aggressive exotic pathogens, that
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5 459 the decline of the dominant species (*Q. suber*) implies shifts in the ranking of seedling and
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7 460 sapling abundance among tree species, which could affect successional trajectories
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9 461 potentially leading to vegetation shifts (Kayes and Tinker, 2012; but see Redmond and
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11 462 Barger, 2013; Suarez and Kitzberger, 2008).

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14 463 Yet, predicting trajectories of forest recovery after tree dieback is not an easy task. For
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16 464 tree dieback to induce compositional shifts, it is necessary that the die-off species has a
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18 465 disadvantage in terms of propagule input or that the new conditions created are relatively
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20 466 more favorable for regeneration of coexisting species (Suarez and Kitzberger, 2008). Here we
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22 467 found that in some forest types, like open woodlands, the die-off species *Q. suber* met both
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24 468 requisites, showing much lower seedling and sapling abundance than the co-dominant *O.*
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26 469 *europaea* in all sites (Table B in Supplementary Material) and a stronger negative response to
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28 470 declining neighborhoods (Fig. 1f,h). Everything being equal, we could therefore expect these
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30 471 oak woodlands to change towards *O. europaea*- dominated systems, in agreement with our
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32 472 initial hypothesis of study. In closed forests, on the contrary, we found *Q. suber* to have much
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34 473 lower regeneration abundance than the co-dominant *Q. canariensis* at the site-level (Table B
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36 474 in Supplementary Material), but to be somewhat less negative affected by the process of adult
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38 475 decline. Therefore, the future dominance patterns in this forest type will likely depend on the
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40 476 extent to which the relative advantage of *Q. suber* over *Q. canariensis* saplings under
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42 477 defoliated and dead trees can compensate for the intrinsic lower regeneration capacity of the
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44 478 species and its increasing seed-limitation as the process of adult decline advances.

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47 479 Understanding recruitment dynamics in *Q. suber* forests is of major ecological and
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49 480 social importance given the prominent role that this tree species plays in the configuration of
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51 481 the landscape and the economy of the Mediterranean basin, and the problems of regeneration
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53 482 and decline that *Q. suber* suffers throughout its distribution area (Aronson et al., 2009;
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3 483 Urbietta et al., 2008). Here we have shown that, based on current patterns of woody plant
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5 484 regeneration in declining mixed *Q. suber* forests, we could expect these systems to suffer
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7 485 from important changes in relative abundance among tree species as well as among
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9 486 functional groups (trees, shrubs, lianas) in the near future. Because most of these changes
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11 487 point towards a loss of cover and dominance of *Q. suber*, management strategies are urgently
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13 488 needed in order to either attenuate adult mortality (e.g. adequate phytosanitary measures) or
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15 489 promote its regeneration (e.g. enrichment plantings). Only by looking for stabilizing
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17 490 mechanisms that improve the balance between mortality and recruitment (Lloret et al., 2012)
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19 491 we will be able to counteract the negative effects of global change drivers (exotic pathogens,
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21 492 climate change) on *Q. suber*, and preserve the many ecosystem services provided by these
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23 493 valuable forests.
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Table 1. Comparison of the alternate models for the analysis of seedling and sapling abundance, survival and richness. AIC_c values for trivariate and full models are only given when several bivariate models were a better fit than the “Only Tree” model. The best model is shown in bold. Model type (additive vs. multiplicative), number of parameters (NP) and slope (SL) are also given.

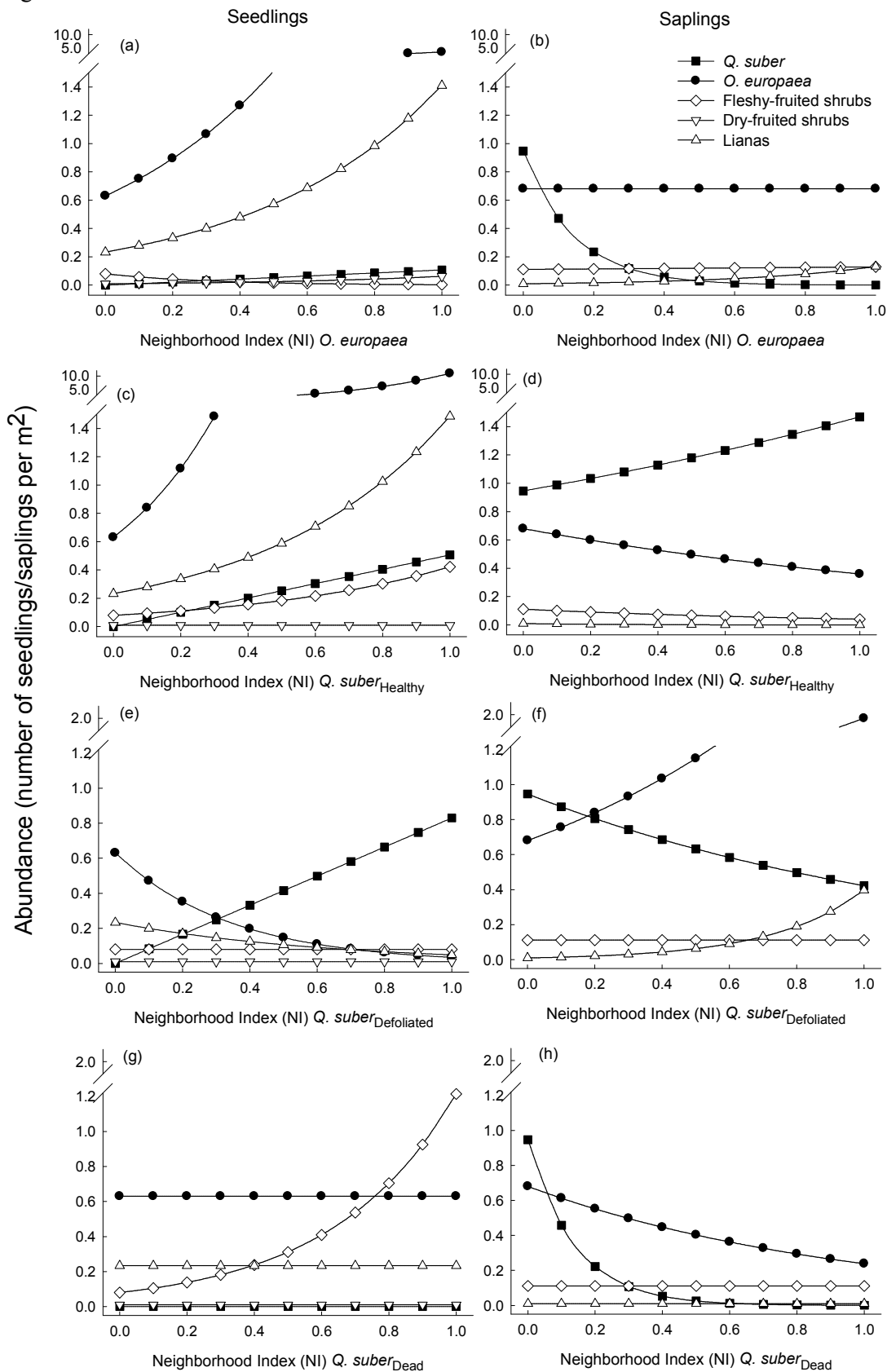
Variable	Life stage	Forest type	Species	AIC _c						Model type	NP	SL		
				Only Tree	Tree + Site	Tree + Year	Tree + Shrub	Tree + Site + Year	Tree + Site + Shrub				Full	
Abundance	Seedling	Woodland	<i>Q. suber</i>	448.4	448.8	448.8	450.0				AD	9	1.05	
			<i>O. europaea</i>	1001.5	927.5	1000.4	1000.1				AD	11	0.91	
			Fleshy-fruited shrubs	249.8	245.0	249.0	253.7				MT	11	1.02	
			Dry-fruited shrubs	137.3	116.3	142.1	141.1				MT	11	0.93	
			Lianas	480.3	411.7	481.1	483.2				MT	11	0.97	
			Closed forest	<i>Q. suber</i>	342.6	317.1	341.0	345.9				AD	11	1.05
				<i>Q. canariensis</i>	905.5	904.8	906.6	907.3				AD	9	1.06
	Fleshy-fruited shrubs	809.1		795.6	808.7	807.6				AD	11	0.92		
	Sapling	Woodland	Lianas	1712.3	1450.3	1710.9	1716.9				MT	11	0.96	
			<i>Q. suber</i>	630.9	625.7	633.1	631.6				MT	11	0.98	
			<i>O. europaea</i>	994.7	977.8	993.3	988.1	971.2			MT	12	1.00	
			Fleshy-fruited shrubs	217.4	203.0	218.7	219.0				MT	11	1.09	
			Lianas	109.4	95.6	108.3	115.2				MT	11	1.00	
			Closed forest	<i>Q. suber</i>	655.1	590.2	666.0	658.5				MT	11	1.07
<i>Q. canariensis</i>				973.2	968.9	975.7	973.2				MT	11	1.02	
Fleshy-fruited shrubs	893.4	892.3		895.7	894.0				MT	9	1.07			
		Lianas	1155.1	1125.7	1156.3	1153.4				AD	11	1.08		
Survival	Seedling	Woodland	<i>Q. suber</i>	98.8	100.8	91.0	102.1				AD	9	0.90	
			<i>O. europaea</i>	226.6	230.8	228.7	228.3				AD	8	2.07	
		Closed forest	<i>Q. suber</i>	69.7	74.4	71.98	73.8				AD	8	1.48	
			<i>Q. canariensis</i>	177.9	182.1	178.0	180.7				AD	8	1.02	
	Sapling	Woodland	<i>Q. suber</i>	151.4	153.0	153.3	155.4				AD	8	0.96	
			<i>O. europaea</i>	221.3	213.0	210.6	227.9	206.8			AD	11	0.99	
		Closed forest	<i>Q. suber</i>	91.9	92.2	89.6	91.2				AD	9	0.97	
			<i>Q. canariensis</i>	287.2	237.0	283.4	290.0				AD	10	0.98	
Richness	Seedling + sapling	Woodland	All woody species	898.8	903.2	903.3	901.5				AD	8	0.97	
		Closed forest	All woody species	1301.1	1163.9	1278.6	1287.1			1122.4	AD	15	0.97	

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3 706 **Figure legends**
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5 707 **Figure 1** Predicted variation in the abundance of seedlings and saplings of different woody
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7 708 species (*Quercus suber*, *Olea europaea*, fleshy-fruited shrubs, dry-fruited shrubs, and lianas)
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9 709 as a function of the neighborhood index (NI) calculated for four different tree neighbor types
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11 710 (*O. europaea* [a,b], healthy *Q. suber* [c, d], defoliated *Q. suber* [e, f] and dead *Q. suber* [g,h])
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13 711 in woodland sites. NI values of 0 represent neighborhoods without trees, whereas NI values
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15 712 of 1 represent, for each neighbor category, the neighborhoods with the highest observed value
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17 713 of NI (i.e. the highest influence of that neighbor type). Predicted abundance of seedlings and
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19 714 saplings was calculated using the values of the parameters a , b and λ in Eq. 1 or 2, given in
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21 715 Supporting Information (Tables D and E in Supplementary Material).
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27 717 **Figure 2** Predicted variation in the abundance of seedlings and saplings of different woody
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29 718 species (*Quercus suber*, *Quercus canariensis*, fleshy-fruited shrubs, and lianas) as a function
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31 719 of the neighborhood index (NI) calculated for four different neighbor types (*Q. canariensis*
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33 720 [a, b], healthy *Q. suber* [c,d], defoliated *Q. suber* [e, f] and dead *Q. suber* [g,h]) in closed
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35 721 forest sites. NI values of 0 represent neighborhoods without trees, whereas NI values of 1
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37 722 represent, for each neighbor category, the neighborhoods with the highest observed value of
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39 723 NI (i.e. the highest influence of that neighbor type). Predicted abundance of seedlings and
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41 724 saplings was calculated using the values of the parameters a , b and λ in Eq. 1 or 2, given in
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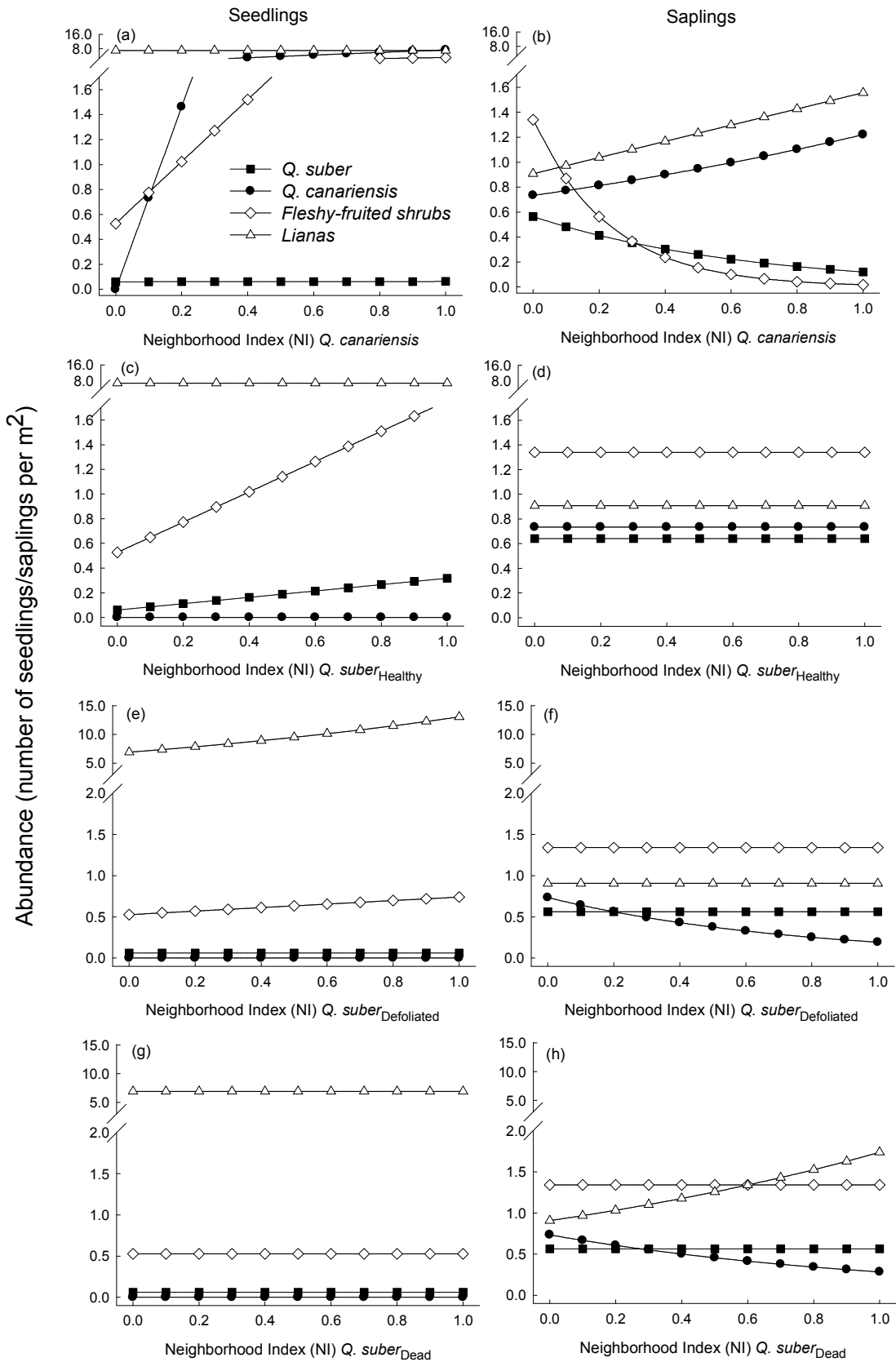
726 Figure 1



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728 Figure 2



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