

Vegetation dynamics and regeneration of Pinus pinea forests in Mount Lebanon: Towards the progressive disappearance of pine

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1	Title:
2	"Vegetation dynamics and regeneration of Pinus pinea forests in Mount Lebanon: towards
3	the progressive disappearance of pine"
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17	Keywords: Vegetation dynamics, pine regeneration, floristic composition, Mount Lebanon,
18	dendrometric characteristics.
19	
20	Highlights
21	- Stone pine has great economic and ecological importance in Lebanon
22	- We proposed a classification of pine forests in five ecological groups
23	- Pine regeneration is almost absent in the understory while oak species prevail
24	- In the absence of management, oaks will progressively replace pine forests

25 Abstract

26 *Pinus pinea* is a species of great economic and ecological importance in Lebanon, but 27 there is a lack of knowledge about the distribution of the pine forests, their vegetation 28 dynamics and regeneration. Our study aims to produce the first classification of the pine 29 stands according to their floristic composition and the abiotic factors of the Mount 30 Lebanon region and to analyse natural pine recruitment. Floristic composition, environmental and soil factors as well as stand dendrometric characteristics and woody 31 32 seedling regeneration were recorded on fifty plots distributed in the main stone pine 33 stands of the study area. Using canonical correspondence and clustering analyses, we classified pine stands into five groups which were mainly influenced by physiographic 34 35 factors (altitude, slope, temperature, rainfall), nature of the bedrock, and evidence of human interventions. Most, stone pine stands in Mount Lebanon were dense (849 36 stems.ha⁻¹), old (81 years) with a high basal area (49 m².ha⁻¹). Pine regeneration was 37 38 particularly scant, and the understory was dominated by the oak species: *Q. calliprinos*, 39 mainly and Q. infectoria, secondarily. Based on these results, we concluded that the 40 presence of stone pine and its persistence are linked to human actions. In the absence of 41 human intervention, the stone pine stands will progressively disappear and be replaced by oak formations. Thus, an urgent management plan is required to favour pine 42 43 regeneration to allow for the renewal of the pine stands in the Mount-Lebanon region.

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50 **1-Introduction**

Ecosystem dynamics are formed by biological resources, specifically natural vegetation where floristic and faunistic life are present (Balcha, 2008). Plant communities' composition, species persistence and plant richness are largely controlled by environmental factors, spatial heterogeneity and perturbations (Keddy, 1992; Ricklefs and Schulter, 1993; Bennett *et al.*, 2006; Dufour *et al.*, 2006).

56 In forest systems, vegetation composition is also the result of complex and mutual relationships 57 between the overstory and the understory although the influence of the overstory is determinant 58 as it controls the availability of resources on the forest floor (Scheller and Mladenoff, 2002; 59 Burrascano et al., 2011; Burton et al. 2011; Cutini et al. 2015). Therefore, the understory 60 composition can be considered as an indicator of overstory dynamics. It varies with the structure 61 and composition of the dominant canopy that controls light availability (Bartemucci et al., 62 2006; Yu et Sun, 2013), water (Ewers el al., 2002; Barbier et al., 2009), soil nutrients (Augusto 63 et al., 2002; Prescott, 2002), and litter characteristics with physical and chemical soil proprieties 64 (Augusto et al., 2003; Barbier et al., 2008). In fact, the current spatial distribution of a plant 65 species is the result of various environmental, anthropogenic and biotic factors (Lacoste and 66 Salanon, 1978). Vegetation diversity and distribution are highly affected by slope (Maestre et al., 2003; Bennie et al., 2008) and altitude (Kira and Shidei, 1967; Mayhead, 1973). In addition, 67 68 soil characteristics can affect vegetation composition (Debelis et al., 2005; Jafari et al., 2009) 69 which is particularly influenced by soil carbon and nitrogen content (Marcuzzo et al., 2013; 70 Noumi, 2015), soil texture (Monier and Wafaa, 2003), and available nutrients (Wales, 1967; 71 Pregitzer et al., 1983). In addition to physiographic factors, Mediterranean vegetation in 72 particular is the product of a long history of anthropogenic disturbances, such as fire, grazing 73 or wood exploitation, which have deeply modified major site factors and shaped the vegetation 74 composition (Quézel, 1998; Mekideche et al., 2018).

75 The existence of a plant community is also highly related to its regeneration potential under 76 different environmental conditions, which means that the long-term sustainability of a forest 77 depends on successful regeneration (Malik and Bhatt, 2016). In fact, regeneration and particular 78 habitat conditions determine future species composition and geographical distribution in a 79 forest (Grubb, 1977). In addition, regeneration capacity often determines the resilience of the 80 ecosystem and its capacity for recovery after a disturbance (Pandey and Shukla, 2001). The 81 successful regeneration of a species entails that there is a sufficient number of seedlings, 82 saplings and trees of this species in a given forest (Dutta and Devi, 2013) that may vary spatially 83 according to forest structure and physiographic conditions (Ward et al., 2006). Overstory and 84 the spatial repartition of dominant trees have a direct effect on natural regeneration as well as 85 soil surface conditions (Bailey and Covington, 2002; Sánchez-Meador et al., 2009).

86 Pinus pinea L. (stone pine) forests covered about 750 000 ha around the Mediterranean basin 87 (Fady et al., 2004) and are mainly distributed in Spain, Turkey, Portugal, Italy and in lower 88 proportions in Greece, Lebanon and France (Varol and Tel, 2010). This tree was largely planted 89 in these areas for its timber but especially for its production of edible seeds generating important 90 economic benefits for the local population (Calama et al., 2007). Stone pine forests are also of 91 great ecological interest as they are well adapted to water-limited environment and heavy sandy 92 soils, i.e. under conditions that could be limiting for other tree species (Manso et al., 2013). 93 They also play a major role in preventing erosion of sandy coasts in Mediterranean countries 94 (Raddi et al., 2009) and are often used for recreational purposes (Tomao et al., 2018).

In Lebanon, the majority of coniferous forests is covered by stone pine with 12740 ha (Roukoz, 2005) which is mainly found in western Mount Lebanon, beginning with its coastal zone up to 1650 meters (Baltaxe, 1966). In addition, stone pine is one of the most important recommended trees for plantation in the National Reforestation Plan that was created by the Ministry of Environment in Lebanon in 1993 aiming to increase forest cover from 13 to 20% in 30 years

100 (MoE, 2014). In this country, the stone pine was largely planted (FAO, 2010) for its market 101 value, i.e. nuts production (Sfeir, 2011), while its conservation value received a low interest 102 from most of the stakeholders (Sarkissian et al., 2018). The status of the stone pine in Lebanon 103 is controversial: some authors think that the species has been introduced while it is an endemic 104 species for others (Mikesell, 1969; Chouchani et al., 1975; Abi Saleh et al., 1976; Abi Saleh, 105 1978). For the latter, stone pine represents the terminal stage of plant succession, from open 106 formations to forest, and is therefore capable of natural recruitment. In this study, we ask 107 whether pine stands can sustain themselves in the landscapes through natural regeneration or 108 not. To answer this question, we developed a twofold approach.

109 1- In the absence of prior field surveys, we first characterise pine stands in terms of forest
110 structure and floristic composition in relation to the main environmental factors. On this
111 basis, we want to establish a first classification of these stands and we hypothesize that,
112 depending on the vegetation and site-related factors, some stands may present natural
113 pine regeneration.

114 2- We then analyse more specifically pine regeneration and the recruitment of other tree 115 species at the stand level. We hypothesise that some local factors such as the litter depth 116 and neighbouring vegetation may be detrimental to pine seedlings establishment. In 117 contrast, some non-pine tree species may establish preferentially in the understory.

118 This approach constitutes a preliminary step for the sustainable management of these systems119 in Lebanon (Gaudin, 2015).

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125 **2-Material and Methods**

126 **2.1. Study area: Mount-Lebanon**

Mount Lebanon is in the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea between 33°22' and 34°40' (Fig.
1a and b). It is a mountain range of 30 km in width and 170 km in length with a SSW-NNE

129 orientation. It extends from the coast to 3088 m with a mean altitude of 2000 m.

This area is characterized by a typical Mediterranean climate. Temperatures vary with altitude starting from an annual average of 20.7°C at coastal zones which decreases by 0.6°C each 100 m of altitude. The same pattern is observed for annual precipitation starting with an average of 700 to 900 mm at coastal zones that increases with altitude up to 1200 mm at the highest point in Lebanon at 3088 m. Dry season extends over six months from May to October (Sanlavile, 1977). Soils are of various types but Red Mediterranean soils, rendzina soils, sandy and mixed soils are the most represented (Geze, 1956).

137 Vegetation is typically Mediterranean and, according to Abi Saleh and Safi (1988), is composed

138 of three components: pines (Pinus pinea L.) mainly on sandstone, oak (Quercus calliprinos

139 Webb. and Quercus infectoria G. Olivier) on limestone, and a coniferous level (Abies cilicica

140 (Antoine & Kotschy) Carrière and *Cedrus Libani* A. Rich.) at higher altitude (1200 to 2000 m).

141 Stone pine forests are among the most abundant coniferous forests in Mount Lebanon (Baltaxe,

142 1966) where 80% of pine nut production in Lebanon occurs (Abi Saleh *et al.*, 1996).

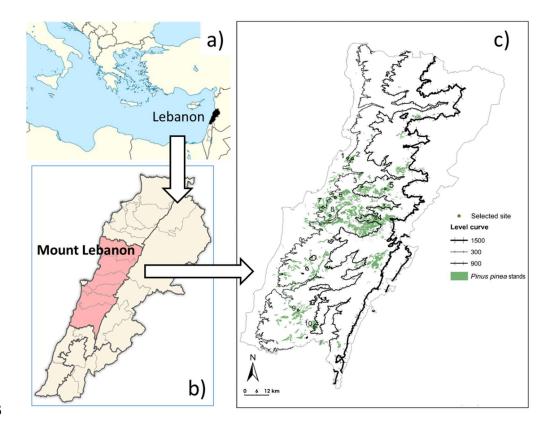




Fig. 1. a) The location of Lebanon in the eastern part of the Mediterranean basin. b) The location
of Mount Lebanon in the country. c) The distribution of *Pinus pinea* stands in Mount Lebanon,
the selected sites are indicated (1 to 10).

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148 **2.2. Sampling design**

149 Topographic variability such as altitude and slope are considered to be key factors influencing

150 vegetation cover and development (Coblentz and Riitters, 2004; Coblentz and Keating, 2008;

151 Zhao *et al.*, 2010) as well as soil characteristics (Peng *et al.*, 2012).

152 In a first step, we used maps of the distribution of stone pine in the massif (Fig. 1c), variation

153 in slope, altitude and the distribution of soil types. Slope percentage was divided into 5 classes

154 (0-5; 5-8; 8-30; 30-60; and >60%), altitude into 4 classes (0-300; 300-900; 900-1500; >1500

155 m) and 28 soil types were recorded.

156 The stone pine map was intersected using ArcGis 9.0 software with slope, altitude and soil

157 maps in order to obtain a map of the distribution of *Pinus pinea* in Mount Lebanon as a function

158 of all these abiotic factors. We identified 16 major combinations resulting from 2 classes of 159 altitude, 2 classes of slope and 4 major types of soil (Table 1). Among these combinations, 10 160 sites in which the cover of stone pine was most abundant were selected (Table 1). In each 161 selected site, five plots of 15 m x 15 m (pine stands) were sampled in representative ecological 162 conditions. We also avoided selecting pine stands showing pronounced signs of disturbances 163 i.e. no grazing, intense logging, or fires. However, since most Lebanon's forests have been 164 subjected to a some degree of human activity, we systematically found evidence of present or 165 past human activities. In particular, the presence or absence of terraces, indicating a previous 166 agricultural use, was recorded as well as evidence of cutting in the overstory and shrub clearing 167 in the understory.

169 Table 1: Surface of stone pine stands in km² according to soil, altitude and slope classes.
170 Sampled stands are indicated in grey.

Altitude (m)		300 - 9	00	900 - 1	1500
	Slope (%)	8 - 30	30 - 60	8 - 30	30 - 60
Stand surface	Sandy soils	15.93	10.93	10.13	6.26
as a function	Mixed soils (discontinuous,	7.18	5.88	3.24	3.04
of soil type	especially in mountains) on marl,				
(km ²)	limestone and siliceous sandstone				
	Discontinuous red soils on compact	9	7.5	1.8	0.36
	limestone				
	Mixed discontinuous soils on marl	-	4.17	5.83	3.89
	with white limestone				
					L

172 **2-3 Measurements**

173 2.3.1. Floristic composition.

In each plot, all vascular species of the canopy, understory, and herbaceous layer were identified
by consulting taxonomic references (Mouterde, 1970; Blamey and Grey-Wilson, 1993). Each
species was given a coefficient of abundance-dominance according to the procedure of BraunBlanquet (1932).

178

179 2.3.2. Environmental factors

180 The altitude, slope and aspect were measured in each plot and the local topography was 181 described according to general observations of the plot (see Table S1 for description of the 182 factors). We also used the climatic data for each site provided by the Lebanese Agricultural 183 Research Institute (LARI) such as annual mean temperature and rainfall by referring to recorded 184 values in the last 10 years at the nearest stations to selected sites (see Table S2 for more details). 185 The nature of the bedrock was noted in the field, the types observed were sandstone (a soft, 186 grey or ochre rock, barely cemented by some limonite), siliceous sandstone (with presence of 187 quartz grains), marl (fossiliferous green marl) and limestone (Dubertret, 1955).

188 To detect the presence of lime in the upper layer, a field test of fine earth reaction to HCl (diluted
189 at 10%) was carried out (presence or absence of reaction) in each plot.

Two pits were randomly dug, and two soil samples of 400 g were collected for each pit, corresponding to the first two soil horizons, these were used to measure pH, the ratio C/N and to estimate the soil texture. Soil texture in each plot was estimated by sedimentation tests in addition to the feel method on the collected samples (Jaja, 2016; FAO, 2006). Soil texture was coded by giving a coefficient of 0 (absent), 1 (present) or 2 (dominant) for the proportion of sand, silt and clay (Ripert and Vennetier, 2002). The water content (mm water/cm of soil) associated to each texture was then determined using the soil textural triangle and the data given

197 by Jamagne et al. (1977). Lastly, the soil water reserve was computed for each plot by 198 multiplying the water content by soil depth considering the proportion of coarse elements. Soil 199 pH in the first layer was measured according to the French Standard ISO 10390 (ISO, 2005). 200 Ten grams of air-dried soil sieved at 2 mm were put in 50 mL of demineralized water, agitated 201 for 1h and left for 1h. Then, pH was measured using a pH meter calibrated with buffer solutions 202 (pH=4 and 7) for a total of 50 samples. The C/N ratio was measured by weighting between 30 203 and 40 mg of air-dried sieved soil (n = 50) which had been milled into a fine powder (Retsch 204 brand MM400 oscillating mill vibrator). Then subsamples of 30 to 40 mg were placed in tin 205 capsules for analysis by a CHNS-O elemental analyser which is based on the total combustion 206 of the analytical sample at 950° C under oxygen flow and under pressure.

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208 2.3.3. Dendrometric and regeneration measurements

209 The circumference at breast height was measured for all living trees (pine and other trees or 210 tree-like species) superior to 1.30 m in height, and pine density, pine basal area and mean girth 211 were computed. In addition, the height of 4-5 dominant pines was measured in each plot and 212 on three dominant pines, 2 cores were extracted from each tree at 1.30 m height in two 213 perpendicular directions using an increment borer. Cores were dried, mounted and finely sanded 214 until the annual rings could be identified. Tree rings were counted using WinDendro software 215 (Regent Instruments Inc.) in order to determine tree age. We could not accurately cross-date 216 the series due to numerous anomalies and reading difficulty (e.g. missing rings, inclusion of 217 resin). Therefore, our measurements could only be considered as an estimate of tree age. 218 However, to have a conservative and cautious approach, we discarded more than 20% of the 219 cores (i.e. only 238 cores on 300 were used).

To study the regeneration of the woody species in the understory we used nine 1m×1m subplots
per plot distributed along 3 parallel transects. In each subplot, the number of pine and other

woody seedlings was counted. Litter thickness was also measured and the herbaceous, shruband overstory pine covers were estimated.

224

225 2-4 Data analysis

Two arrays were produced: a floristic array (50 plots \times 117 species) and an array of environmental factors (50 plots \times 12 factors). These data were analysed using a canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) (R, package ADE4, function pcaiv).

229 CCA is a direct gradient analysis in which species composition is directly related to measured 230 environmental variables (Palmer, 1993). It extracts synthetic ecological gradients that 231 maximize the niche separation among species from measured environmental variables (ter 232 Braak and Verdonschot, 1995). CCA is a powerful tool for forest classification and can be 233 complemented with other techniques such as hierarchical clustering (Gégout and Houiller, 234 1996; Javad *et al.*, 2017; Rahman *et al.*; 2017).

In this study, hierarchical clustering was performed using Ward's criterion (Ward, 1963) on the selected principal components of the CCA. The number of groups of pine stands was determined by examining the variation of inertia according to the number of clusters.

Variation in dendrometric characteristics and plant cover of the main tree and shrub species among the different groups were analysed using ANOVA followed by Tukey post-hoc tests after checking for the assumptions of normality and variance homoscedasticity. When necessary, mathematical transformations were applied to meet these conditions.

Regeneration of pine in the subplots according to the local vegetation factors was analysed using general linear mixed models with a Poisson distribution (R package lme4, function glmer). The dependent variable was the number of pine seedlings, the fixed factors were the litter cover and its thickness, the cover in herbs and in shrubs, and the overstory cover. Subplots nested in plots were considered as random factors. 247 **3-Results**

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248 **3-1- Floristic composition**

249 We found a total of 117 species belonging to 31 plant families. The three most abundant 250 families, based on plant cover, after Pinaceae were Fagaceae (35%), Cistaceae (26%) and 251 Poaceae (19%) while Asteraceae, Poaceae, Fabaceae and Pinaceae where the most abundant 252 families based on species occurrence (Fig. 2). The most abundant tree or tree-like species after 253 Pinus pinea L. were Quercus calliprinos Webb. (28.05% in cover), Quercus infectoria G. 254 Olivier (6.45%), Pistacia palaestina Boiss. (6.1%). Shrub species were abundant, in particular 255 Cistus salviifolius L. (15.3%), Smilax aspera L. (8.5%), Callicotome villosa (Poir.) Link 256 (6.95%), Cistus creticus L. (6.85%), while for herbaceous plants the most abundant species 257 were Bromus rigidus Roth. (4.9%), Hordeum spontaneum L. (4.5%), Cyclamen persicum Mill. 258 (4.2%).

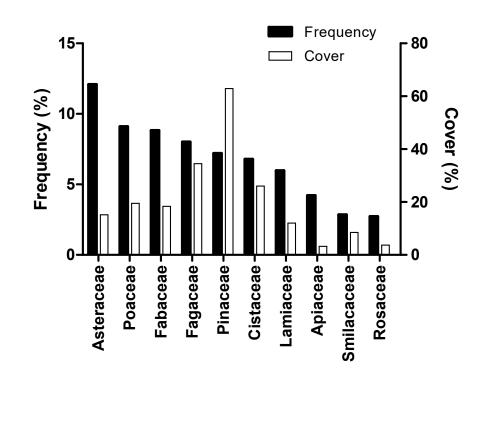


Fig. 2. Percentage frequency (based on species occurrence) and percentage cover (based on
species cover) of the main plant families.

263 **3-2-** Results of the Canonical correspondence analysis and classification

264 Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) was used to explore the relationships between the 265 vegetation composition and the environmental variables. The two first axes of the CCA 266 explained 27.62 % of the total variance (Fig. 3A). The first axis (Fig. 3B) reveals a positive 267 correlation with limestone (r = 0.53) and marl bedrocks (r = 0.52), and terraces (Anthro.Terr, r 268 = 0.44), and a negative correlation with perturbed terraces (Anthro.Terr.Hint, r = -0.475), 269 calcareous sandstone bedrock (r = -0.59) and absence of limestone in fine earth of the upper 270 soil layer (HCl.A.No, r = -0.76). This axis therefore depicts edaphic conditions, mainly 271 controlled by the nature of the bedrock, and anthropogenic disturbances. In contrast, the second axis is strongly related to altitude (r = -0.96) and to climatic variables: rainfall (r = -0.62) and 272 273 temperature (r = 0.84). Less marked correlations were also observed between slope (r = 0.53), 274 limestone bedrock (r = 0.42), presence of terraces (Anthro.Terr r = -0.57) and soil C/N ratios 275 (r=0.40).

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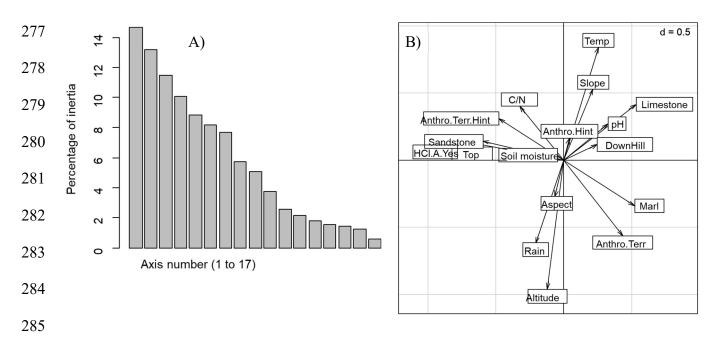


Fig.3. Results of the CCA. A) Percentage of inertia for each axis, B) projection of the measured factors, the scale of the graph is given by a grid, the size of which is indicated in the upper right corner (d=0.5). Abbreviations (see also Table S1): Anthro.Terr (presence of terraces); Anthro.Terr.Hint (no terraces but human intervention); HCl.A.Yes (reaction with HCl of the upper soil layer); Limestone, marl, sandstone (bedrock geology); Temp (mean annual site temperature); Rain (mean annual site rainfall); Downhill, Top (general topography); Aspect (plot exposure); Soil moisture (Soil water holding capacity); Altitude (mean site elevation).

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The clustering analysis applied on the CCA results revealed 5 groups (Fig. 4A). The projection on the factorial map of plots classified within these 5 groups as well as major plant species are indicated Fig. 4B.

The first group (Group 1) is the largest as it includes 20 plots from 4 sites. Pine stands of this group are found on various types of bedrock and topographic conditions but are located at low altitudes (416 m \pm 37) and on steep slopes (22.50% \pm 1.4). Topsoil layers are not carbonated, and evidence of other human activities are rare, no terraces are found. This group is characterized by species like *Salvia fruticosa* Mill., *Myrtus communis* Linn., *Cyclamen persicum* Mill., *Galium verum* L., *Hypericum thymifolium* Banks et Sol., *Oxalis pes-caprae* L., and *Smilax aspera* L.

The second group (Group 2) includes 10 plots from 2 sites located at a medium altitude (815m
± 48m) on moderate slopes (12.6 ± 2.3). Carbonate soils developed on marl and limestone and
terraces are frequently observed. The main species are *Helichrysum sanguineum* L. (Kostel), *Trifolium purpureum* Loisel., *Lotus corniculatus* L. var. brachyodon Boiss., *Alcea digitata*(Boiss.) Alef., *Hordeum bulbosum* L., *Phlomis fruticosa* L., *Convolvulus arvensis* L., *Torilis arvensis* (Huds.) Link and *Cirsium vulgare* (Savi) Tenore.

311	The third group (Group 3) includes only 5 plots from the same site located at high altitude (1022
312	m) on a low slope. Soils are not carbonate and developed on a limestone substrate. The presence
313	of clay in the lower soil layer explains its high-water storage capacity (107 mm) compared to
314	the other groups (between 40 and 60 mm). No evidence of past or recent human activities were
315	recorded. The vegetation composition was characterized by the presence of Lavandula stoechas
316	L. and Hordeum spontaneum L. The Group 4 includes 10 plots from 2 sites located at high
317	altitude (1050-1200 m) on moderate slopes (14.2 \pm 1.3). Soils are not carbonate and mostly
318	developed on siliceous sandstone. There was little evidence of past human activities, and
319	terraces were only observed on 3 plots. The main species are Juniperus oxycedrus L.,
320	Asphodelus ramosus Salzm., Lolium multiflorum Gaud., Anchusa strigosa Labill., and
321	Trifolium repens L. The last group (Group 5) is made up of only 5 plots, located at low altitude
322	(330 m) on low slopes (7.2 %). The bedrock is composed of sandstone and in all plots evidence
323	of past (terraces) and recent human activities were recorded. The main species are Plantago
324	lagopus L., Carduus argentatus L., Avena sterilis L., and Veronica persica Poir.
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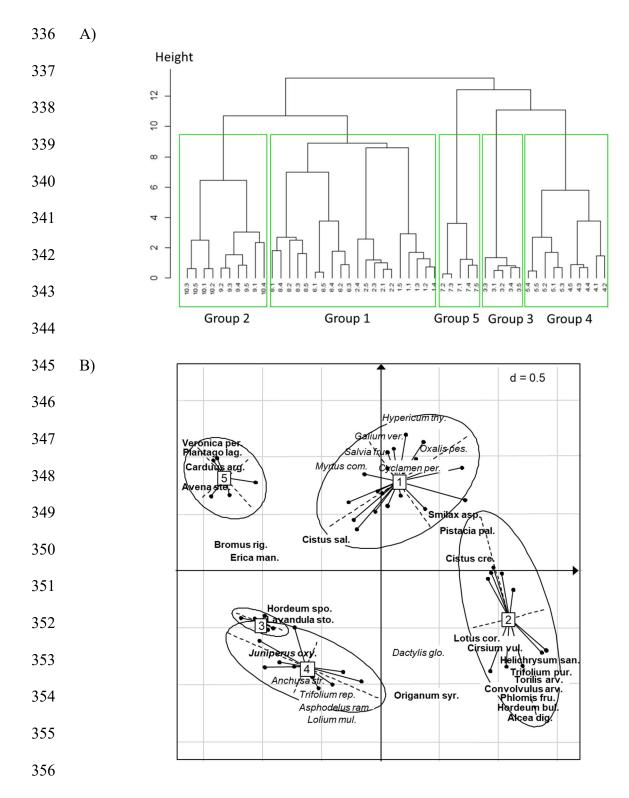


Fig. 4. A) Results of the clustering analysis based on CCA results. B) The projection of species
and plots on the factorial map of the CCA. The five groups resulting from the clustering analysis
are indicated by the ellipses (1 to 5). Only plants with a contribution superior to 1.5 of the mean

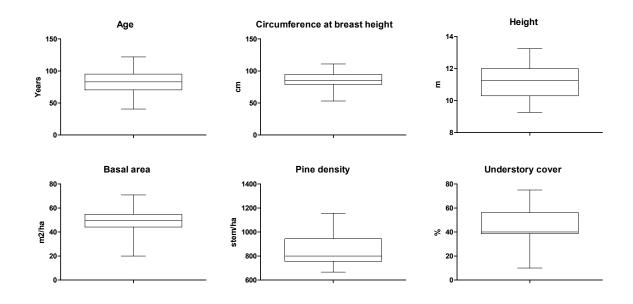
360 contribution were indicated, in bold italics for axis 1 and italics for axis 2. The scale of the361 graph is the same as Fig. 3B which shows the projection of environmental factors.

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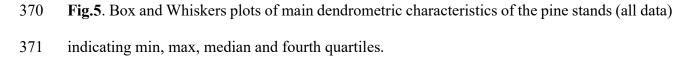
363 **3-3- Stand characteristics**

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The main dendrometric characteristics of the pine stands in the study area indicated that stands were old (80.8 years \pm 0.4) and mature (girth at breast height 84.9 cm \pm 0.24) but with a relatively low mean height (11.1m \pm 0.02) (Fig. 5). The stands were also dense (849 stems.ha⁻¹) with a high basal area (49 m².ha⁻¹ \pm 0.21).



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When examining the dendrometric attributes of each group in greater detail (Table 2), we note that the youngest stands with the lowest dominant tree height were found in Group 2 (45.4 years and 9.7 m respectively). In contrast, Group 5 included the oldest stands (90.4 years) with the greatest girth (97.8 cm) and basal area (60.7 m².ha⁻¹). The other groups (1.2 and 4) exhibited a comparable age although stands of Group 1 were the densest (940 stems.ha⁻¹) with the lowest 378 mean girth (75.4 cm). Lastly, the highest understory cover was found in stands of Group 4
379 (58%) while the lowest herbaceous cover was recorded in Group 3 (22%).

380

381 Table 2. Variation in the main stand characteristics (mean ±se) according to the different

382 groups. Different letters indicate statistical differences among groups (P < 0.05).

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Groups	1	2	3	4	5
Age	89.4 ± 3.15 (a)	45.4 ± 1.14 (b)	84.8 ± 6.23(a)	84.9 ± 4.18 (a)	90.4 ± 5.24 (a)
Circumference					
(cm)	75.4 ± 2.51 (a)	86.1 ± 1.52 (a,b)	86.0 ± 1.95 (a,b)	95.7 ± 2.11 (b)	97.8 ± 2.20 (b)
Height	11.5 ± 0.19 (a,b)	9.7 ± 0.15 (c)	10.8 ± 0.45 (b,c)	11.1 ± 0.33 (a,b)	12.4 ± 0.22 (a)
Basal area	43.7 ± 2.57 (a)	48.2 ± 2.10 (a,b)	51.3 ± 2.27 (a,b)	54.1±2.29 (b)	60.7 ± 3.10 (b)
Pine density	940.0 ± 28.53 (a)	804.4 ± 12.31 (b)	862.2 ± 33.26 (a,b)	7333 ± 21.21 (b)	791.1 ± 16.63 (b)
Understory					
cover (%)	46.3 ± 2.99 (a,b)	34.5± 2.52 (b)	$51.0\pm4.85~(ab)$	58.0 ± 4.73 (a)	29.0 ± 5.57 (b)
Herbaceous					
cover (%)	54.0 ± 4.11 (a)	43.0 ± 4.90 (a,b)	22.0 ± 2.55 (b)	43.5 ± 7.07 (a,b)	52.0 ± 3.39 (a)

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386 **3-4- Regeneration of pine seedlings and tree saplings**

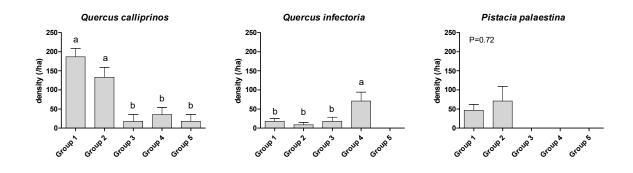
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Only 15 pine seedlings were recorded over the 450 subplots. We found that the number of seedlings follow a Poisson law of parameter lambda=0.033 (Fisher's exact test for count data, P = 0.42). In addition, the results of the GLMM showed that the number of pine seedlings was significantly negatively correlated with shrub cover and herb cover (Table 3).

393 Table 3. Results of the GLMM (fixed factors only) giving the number of pine seedlings394 according to local vegetation factors.

	Estimate	Std. Error	Z value	P-value	
(Intercept)	-5.995	4.669	-1.284	0.199	
Litter cover	0.005	0.024	0.226	0.821	
Litter thickness	-0.016	0.709	-0.023	0.981	
Herb cover	-0.059	0.026	-2.257	0.024 *	
Shrub cover	-0.045	0.022	-2.093	0.036 *	
Pine cover	0.024	0.026	0.906	0.365	

The oak species *Quercus calliprinos* Webb. was by far the most abundant in the understory
(57% of the stems) followed by *Pistacia palaestina* Boiss. (17%), *Quercus infectoria* G. Olivier
(13%) and other species (13%) such as *Ceratonia siliqua* L., *Acer syriacum* Boiss. & Gaill. and *Arbutus andrachne* L. *Quercus calliprinos* was found in all groups (Fig. 6) but its density was significantly higher in
groups 1 and 2. Similarly, *Quercus infectoria* was frequently observed but in lower abundance
except for in Group 4. *Pistacia palaestina* was only recorded in Groups 1 and 2.





406 **Fig. 6.** The density of the three main tree species in each group. Different letters indicate 407 statistical differences (P < 0.05) among groups (no letters = not significant).

- 408
- 409

410 **4- Discussion**

411 This floristic study showed that *Pinus pinea* forests in Lebanon are dense with overstories 412 dominated by stone pine and understories dominated by *Quercus calliprinos* Webb. and to a 413 lesser extent *Quercus infectoria* G. Olivier. Shrub species are also abundant in particular *Cistus* 414 *salviifolius* L., *Callicotome villosa* (Poir.) Link and *Cistus creticus* L.

415

416 *4.1. Classification of pine stands*

The cluster analysis following the CCA produced five groups differentiating themselves by environmental factors and species composition. Understory species showed strong responses to altitude, slope, temperature, rain, bedrock, human intervention and C/N.

In this study, groups 1 and 5 were located at the lowest altitudes but on very contrasted slope
conditions as the steepest slopes were observed in Group 1 while Group 5 had the lowest slopes.
Topographic variability such as elevation and slope are considered as key factors influencing
vegetation cover due to their effect on specific microclimates (Coblentz and Riitters, 2004;
Coblentz and Keating, 2008; Zhao *et al.*, 2010). Altitude has been noted for its role in
influencing the distribution of plant communities (Alessandro and Marcello, 2003; Lososova *et*

al., 2004; Fisher and Fuel, 2004; Rahman *et al.*, 2017). Altitude is the main factor affecting
habitat temperature (Coblentz and Riitters, 2004) and can affect productivity rates in natural
forests (Kira and Shidei, 1967; Mayhead, 1973). For instance, Kira and Shidei (1967) showed
that elevation can induce variation in the composition of accompanying species and affect the
growth of natural forests.

431 On other hand, slope was considered as an important factor controlling plant species' 432 distribution (Abbadi and El-Sheikh, 2002; Grongroft et al., 2003; Badano et al., 2005; Boll et 433 al., 2005). Increasing slope steepness can decrease soil depth, nutrients and moisture, making 434 plant establishment more difficult (Campo et al., 1999). In our study, the steep slopes were 435 associated with the absence of evidence of present or past human activities, in particular no 436 terraces were found in Group 1 in contrast to Group 2 and 5. Anthropogenic factors have been 437 reported to directly affect the structure and biodiversity of forest ecosystems as well as plant 438 richness and diversity (Shaheen et al., 2001; Ruprecht et al., 2009; Linares et al., 2011; Blanco 439 and Pereira, 2015). Human disturbances can change plant community distribution by negatively 440 affecting soil fertility (Ko et al., 2011; Heydari et al., 2017; Sfair et al., 2018). Terraces were 441 often cultivated before abandonment and many previous studies have recorded better soil 442 fertility on abandoned croplands in particular, lower C/N ratio values, higher P values and better 443 nitrification (Prévosto et al., 2004; Koerner et al., 1997). It was noticeable that the highest C/N 444 ratio were recorded in the Group 1 (32.9 \pm 1.22) indicating lower fertility whereas the lowest 445 C/N ratios were recorded in group 2 (24.2 \pm 1.73) as the result of a moderate slope and the 446 frequent presence of terraces. In fact, the C/N ratio is a determinant factor in herbaceous plant 447 establishment and an increase of this ratio results in a decrease in nitrogen availability to plants 448 (Christine and McCarthy, 2005). In contrast, the relatively high C/N ratio recorded in Group 5 449 (30.0 ± 2.45) on terraces can be explained by ongoing human disturbances (brushing, local 450 cutting) which could have decreased soil fertility as has been observed in other Mediterranean

habitats (Heydari *et al.*, 2017; Javad *et al.*, 2017). However, now more soil chemical analyses
(e.g. nutrients, cation exchange capacity) would be needed to further explore the impact of
human activities on soil fertility.

454 Groups 3 and 4 are located on medium slopes at high altitude. As frequently observed in many 455 studies, altitude plays an important role in determining plant distribution as this factor is also 456 highly correlated to a gradient of temperature and rainfall (Went, 2003; Hatfield and Prueger, 457 2015; Padilla and Pugnaire, 2007). These two groups exhibit a relatively similar floristic 458 composition, but the former is located exclusively on sandstone bedrock whereas the latter is 459 mostly on siliceous sandstone. The influence of the nature of the geological substratum on soil 460 properties and plant distribution has been widely proven and studied (Just, 1947; Cole, 1982; 461 Searcy et al., 2003). In this study, each group was characterized by a specific bedrock except 462 for Group 1 being present in various types of substratum. Surprisingly, the influence of the soil 463 water reserve was weak: it did not vary among the groups (values ranging from 43 to 53 mm) 464 except for Group 3 which showed a high value (107 mm). In fact, this group was the only one where clay texture was detected whereas the sandy texture was dominant in all other groups. 465 466 Besides, soil depth did not vary, and all sampled pine stands were located on deep soils (>80cm, 467 the maximum depth reached in this study) indicating that soil water holding capacity was 468 probably not a limiting factor in our study conditions.

469

470 *4.2. Stand characteristics and regeneration*

The dendrometric analysis showed that pine stands were relatively dense with a high basal area and mostly old (85-90 years old) except for group 2 (45 years old) which was mostly distributed on privately owned land that had probably been more recently cultivated for pine nuts production. The high basal area can be explained by the absence of thinning or cutting which was also reflected by the lack of pine regeneration. Historically, some *Pinus pinea* plantations 476 have occurred between 1930 and 1940 on sandy soils in Lebanon (Sfeir, 2011) mostly for seeds 477 and not for wood production. Regeneration in these stands was particularly low and can be 478 considered as a rare event. It was restricted to some sites with anthropogenic disturbances 479 especially in Group 5 where disturbances linked to human activity has allowed for the 480 establishment of very few seedlings. This widespread lack of regeneration is probably linked to 481 the reduced light availability under the closed overstory cover which is often a crucial factor 482 for seedling survival in most pine species (Lucas-Borja et al., 2011; Calama et al., 2017) 483 including stone pine (Adili et al., 2013). In fact, previous studies have shown that natural 484 regeneration of stone pine stands must be linked to a strong reduction in tree density (e.g. 485 Calama et al., 2017; Freire et al., 2019). In this study, the influence of litter thickness, which 486 is often detrimental for regeneration (Facelli and Pickett, 1991), was not observed but we found 487 a negative effect of both the shrub and the herb layers. The shrub layer was found to negatively 488 affect pine emergence (Prévosto et al., 2015) and probably survival due to an even more reduced 489 light availability. Developed covers in herbaceous plants, especially grass species, are also 490 particularly detrimental to seedling survival due to competition for both nutrients and water 491 (Diwold et al., 2010; García-Palacios et al., 2012). In contrast, we found clear oak dynamics 492 specifically for Quercus calliprinos which was present in all Pinus pinea stands and secondarily 493 for *Quercus infectoria*. In Lebanon forests, *Quercus calliprinos* was identified as the most 494 common tree species whereas Quercus infectoria was of a less frequent occurrence (Beydoun 495 and Stephan, 2005). In Mediterranean woodlands, oaks were in fact commonly considered as 496 late successional species that followed the pioneer pine stage (Barbero et al., 1998). Pine stands 497 are favourable habitats for oak dissemination as the pine canopy modifies shade, moisture and 498 temperature conditions, as well as promoting oak development (Lookingbill and Zavala, 2000; 499 Gomez, 2004; Pons and Pausas, 2006; Pons and Pausas, 2007). These stands also support a 500 variety of understory shrub vegetation, playing a significant role in these forest ecosystems (like 501 *Cistus* spp.) and some tree-like species (*Pistacia palaestina*.Boiss., *Ceratonia siliqua* L.,
502 *Arbutus andrachne* L.) which could contribute to the diversification of these stands in the future.
503

504 *4.3. Lessons and main implications for management*

505 This study is the first field study on Pinus pinea L. stands in Lebanon which, despite their 506 extensive distribution and important role in the forest economic sector of the country, has 507 received little attention up until now. Pine stands are distributed according to various site 508 conditions, we proposed a first classification of these forests based on environmental factors 509 and plant composition. Most of the stands are old and dense with naturally low pine recruitment 510 emphasising the fact that the conservation of the species in the future is compromised. This 511 finding supports the view that stone pine is an introduced species in Lebanon and cannot form 512 'climatic' forests (i.e. capable of regenerating) as it was stated by some authors (Chouchani et 513 al., 1975; Abi Saleh et al., 1976; Abi Saleh, 1978). In the absence of any forest management 514 intervention and with the ageing of stone pine forests, these stands will progressively disappear 515 in the next few decades and will be replaced by oak species which naturally establish in the 516 understory. Therefore, management action is needed in order to assure either the artificial or 517 natural regeneration of stone pine in relation to the main objectives attributed to these 518 formations (e.g. nut production, wood supply) and future threats to these ecosystems (in 519 particular fire risk and drought). To promote natural regeneration, we recommend reducing tree 520 density (Calama et al., 2012; Freire et al., 2019) and introducing soil disturbances such as soil 521 scarification or prescribed burning (Lucas-Borja et al., 2012; Karlsson, 2000; Prévosto et al. 522 2012). These treatments can promote seed-soil contact and improve seedling establishment, 523 while the greater availability of light provided by reduced canopy will promote longer-term 524 seedling growth and survival.

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 Table S1: Description of the variables and abbreviations used in the study

Variable description	Abbreviation used
Mean temperature of the site (°C)	Temp
Mean precipitation of the site (mm)	Rain
Plot exposure (degree)	Aspect
Soil pH	pH
Site altitude (m)	Altitude
Plot slope (degree)	Slope
Soil water holding capacity	Soil moisture
Carbon-Nitrogen ratio of soil	C/N
Geology of the bedrock	Marl, Limestone, Sandstone
General topography of plot	Downhill, Top
Anthropic factor in plot (terraces with human	Anthro.Terr.Hint, Anthro.Hint
intervention, human intervention only)	
Reaction with Chloric Acid of the upper soil	HCl.A.Yes
layer	

- **Table S2.** Location of the weather stations and methods used to determine cliamtic data
- 885
- 886 Computations of mean annual temperature and mean annual precipation were achieved by the
- 887 Lebanese Agricultural Research Institute (LARI) using 6 different weather stations (see map).
- 888 Computations were done with ArcGis, kriging was preferentially used for temperature and
- 889 IDW (Inverse Distance Weighting) for precipitation.
- 890 Distances between sampled sites and weathers stations are reported below.
- 891
- distance from site 1 to station A: 3.1 km
- distance from site 2 to station A: 3.7 km
- distance from site 3 to station A: 10.4 km
- distance from site 4 to station D: 10.1 km
- distance from site 5 to station D: 7.8 km
- 897 distance from site 6 to station B: 9 km
- 898 distance from site 7 to station B: 5.2 km
- distance from site 8 to station B: 8.3 km
- 900 distance from site 9 to station E: 1.9 km
- 901 distance from site 10 to station F: 0.6 km

