1	Running Head: Pioneer shrubs facilitate forest restoration
2	
3	
4	Applying plant facilitation to forest restoration in Mediterranean ecosystems: a
5	meta-analysis of the use of shrubs as nurse plants
6	
7	
8	
9	
10	Lorena Gómez ¹ , Regino Zamora, Jose M. Gómez, Jose A. Hódar, Jorge Castro and
11	Elena Baraza
12	
13	Grupo de Ecología Terrestre, Dpto. Biología Animal y Ecología, Facultad de Ciencias
14	Universidad de Granada. E-18071 GRANADA, SPAIN. Fax: +34 58 243238.
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	¹ Email:lorena@ugr.es
21	
22	

1

Abstract

2 After a millenarian history of over-exploitation, most forests in the Mediterranean 3 Basin have disappeared, leaving many degraded landscapes that have been recolonized 4 by early-successional shrub-dominated communities. Common reforestation techniques treat these shrubs as competitors against newly planted tree seedlings, thus shrubs are 5 cleared before tree plantation. However, empirical studies and theory governing plant-6 7 plant interactions suggest that, in stress-prone Mediterranean environments, shrubs can 8 have a net positive effect on recruitment of other species. Between 1997 and 2001, we 9 carried out experimental reforestations in the Sierra Nevada Protected Area (SE Spain) 10 with the aim of comparing the survival and growth of seedlings planted in open areas 11 (the current reforestation technique) with seedlings planted under the canopy of pre-12 existing shrub species. Over 18,000 seedlings of 11 woody species were planted under 13 16 different nurse shrubs throughout a broad geographical area. We sought to explore 14 variations in the sign and magnitude of interactions along spatial gradients defined by 15 altitude and aspect. In the present work, we report the results of a meta-analysis 16 conducted with seedling survival and growth data the first summer following planting, 17 the most critical period for reforestation success in Mediterranean areas. The facilitative 18 effect was consistent in all environmental situations explored (grand mean effect size 19 $d_{++}=0.89$ for survival and 0.27 for growth). However, there were differences in the 20 magnitude of the interaction depending on the seedling species planted as well as the 21 nurse shrub species involved. Additionally, nurse shrubs had a stronger facilitative 22 effect on seedling survival and growth at low altitudes and sunny, drier slopes than at 23 high altitudes or shady, wetter slopes. Facilitation in the dry years proved higher than in 24 the wet one. Our results show that pioneer shrubs facilitate the establishment of woody,

- late-successional Mediterranean species, and thus can positively affect reforestation
 success in many different ecological settings
- 3

Key words: abiotic stress; ecological succession; Mediterranean mountains; metaanalysis; nurse shrubs; plant-plant interactions; reforestation; spatial and temporal
variability; tree and shrub seedlings.

- 7
- 8

Introduction

9 A fundamental problem currently facing the Mediterranean basin is the loss of most 10 primeval forests after a millenarian history of over-exploitation (Bauer 1991, Blondel 11 and Aronson 1999). No more than 9-10% of the Mediterranean area is currently 12 forested, and in the Iberian Peninsula only 0.2% can be considered natural or semi-13 natural forests (Marchand 1990). Simultaneously, the surface area covered by 14 shrublands has increased, representing stages of degradation of mature forests as well as 15 stages of vegetation recovery in abandoned agricultural lands (di Castri 1981, Grove 16 and Rackham 2001). In both cases, local and regional characteristics, such as resource 17 availability or the lack of tree propagules, act as barriers to succession (Pickett 2001), 18 and result in self-perpetuating systems that hardly return to the structure and complexity 19 of the original mature community (Blondel and Aronson 1999). In this situation, human intervention is necessary to assist secondary succession at the shrubland or even 20 21 grassland stage, and to accelerate recovery of woodlands. Reforestation is a common 22 approach to achieve this aim. However, in Mediterranean areas, reforestation undergoes 23 extremely high rates of early plant mortality (Mesón and Montoya 1993, García-24 Salmerón 1995), making these efforts unprofitable both in ecological as well as 25 economic terms.

1 In traditional reforestation techniques used in Mediterranean areas, shrubs 2 growing close to newly planted trees are commonly considered heavy competitors, and 3 consequently, they are removed before planting (Mesón and Montoya 1993, García-4 Salmerón 1995, Savill et al. 1997). However, evidence is growing that the spatial 5 proximity among plants is beneficial rather than detrimental in environments such as 6 Mediterranean-type ecosystems that are characterized by abiotic stress (Bertness and 7 Callaway 1994, Callaway and Walker 1997, Brooker and Callaghan 1998). Summer 8 drought is a main source of stress in Mediterranean environments, that limits 9 recruitment of both natural and planted seedlings (Herrera et al. 1994, Rey and 10 Alcántara 2000, Castro et al. 2002). Under such conditions, tree seedlings may benefit 11 from the habitat amelioration by shrubs, which buffer against high radiation and 12 temperatures, and can increase soil nutrient and moisture content (Callaway 1995). The 13 survival and performance of plants in Mediterranean-type ecosystems usually improves 14 when associated with neighbours (Pugnaire 1996a, b, Maestre et al. 2001, Callaway et 15 al. 2002), resulting in a positive association of seedlings and saplings of tree species 16 with shrubs (García et al. 2000, Gómez et al. 2001a, 2003). As a consequence, the 17 spatial pattern of the Mediterranean vegetation is commonly aggregated (Callaway and 18 Pugnaire 1999, Maestre 2002). Thus, the removal of pre-established shrubs prior to 19 reforestation would not be an appropriate technique to apply in these ecosystems. 20 Environmental conditions in Mediterranean mountains are particularly variable 21 in both time and space (Blondel and Aronson 1999). Their complex orography and high 22 altitudes, together with an unpredictable climate, foster the coexistence of many 23 contrasting ecological scenarios at local scales. Differences in environmental conditions 24 appearing at a scale of meters may cause intense shifts in the net outcome of plant 25 interactions. Facilitation often increases with intensified stress, as has been reported in

1 south-facing versus west-facing slopes in rocky plant communities (Callaway et al. 2 1996), in dry versus mesic adjacent sites in the Chilean matorral (Holmgren et al. 2000), 3 in higher versus lower depths in coastal ecosystems (Bertness et al. 1999), or in high 4 versus low altitudes in alpine and semiarid environments (Pugnaire and Luque 2001, 5 Callaway et al. 2002). Interspecific interactions can also vary at the same site between years depending on climatic conditions, although the relationship between climatic 6 7 variability and the net result of the interaction is still unclear. Some studies report 8 stronger facilitation in dry and hot years compared to relatively benign years (Greenlee 9 and Callaway 1996, and Ibañez and Schupp 2001) whereas other studies reached the 10 opposite conclusion (Casper 1996, and Tielbörger and Kadmon 2000). Therefore, an 11 understanding of how the interaction between shrubs and tree seedlings vary spatio-12 temporally is crucial to assess the generality of the utility of shrubs as nurse plants for 13 forest regeneration and restoration.

14 According to the above theoretical and empirical framework, we hypothesise 15 that an alternative reforestation technique using shrubs as planting microsites in 16 Mediterranean areas would give better results (in terms of seedling survival and growth) 17 than would standard techniques using open spaces without vegetation, especially in hot 18 and dry sites and years. To test this hypothesis, between 1997 and 2001, we carried out 19 experimental reforestations in the Sierra Nevada mountains in SE Spain, encompassing 20 the broad range of abiotic as well as biotic conditions provided by this Mediterranean 21 high-mountain. We considered both variability in space as well as in time, a 22 fundamental but barely explored combination of factors, in order to understand the 23 nature and strength of plant-plant interactions related to woody plant establishment. 24 Specifically, we addressed the following questions: 1) How does the use of shrubs as 25 microsites for planting improve tree seedling survival and growth? 2) How does the

1	effect of shrubs on seedling survival and growth vary depending on the shrub and tree
2	species? 3) How do the sign and magnitude of the interaction between shrubs and
3	woody seedlings depend on spatial characteristics of the study site, such as altitude and
4	aspect? and 4) How do the sign and magnitude of the interaction between shrubs and
5	woody seedlings depend on climatic conditions in the year of planting?
6	
7	Methods
8	Study area and species
9	This study was carried out in the Sierra Nevada mountains (SE Spain). The general
10	climate is Mediterranean, characterized by cold winters and hot summers with heavy
11	summer drought (July-August). Rainfall is concentrated mainly in autumn and spring.
12	In these mountains, temperature drops and rainfall increases with altitude, with areas
13	below 1400 m a.s.l. having a dry climate with precipitation of less than 600 mm per
14	year, while areas above this threshold have a subhumid climate with precipitation
15	between 600 and 1000 mm per year (García-Canseco 2001). Additionally, the complex
16	orography of the mountains causes strong climatic contrasts between the sunny and dry
17	south-facing slopes and the shaded and wetter north-facing slopes (Rodríguez-Martínez
18	and Martín-Vivaldi 1996). From a temporal perspective, in southern Spain, annual
19	rainfall fluctuates markedly, making it possible to identify dry and wet years (Rodó and
20	Comín 2001).
21	The experiments were conducted in seven sites of the Sierra Nevada mountains
22	(Table 1), for a total of 36-ha plots (see Appendix 1). The bedrock was siliceous in 2
23	study zones and calcareous in 5, and in all cases the predominant soils were regosols
24	and cambisols (Delgado et al. 1989). All study areas were burned within the last 20
25	years. Consequently, current vegetation is pioneer shrubs (>60% of cover in all cases)

mixed with annual and perennial grasses and herbs, together with some surviving 2 isolated trees. The most abundant shrub species in every study site are shown in Table 3 1.

4 We planted seedlings of the following target shrub and tree species: Crataegus monogyna, Rhamnus alaternus, Retama sphaerocarpa, Quercus faginea, Q. ilex, Q. 5 6 pyrenaica, Pinus halepensis, P. nigra, P. sylvestris var. nevadensis, and Acer opalus 7 subsp. granatense. These species are either commonly found in natural forests in 8 Mediterranean mountains (e.g. C. monogyna, R. alaternus, P. halepensis, P. nigra, Q. 9 ilex, Q. pyrenaica) or are endemic species of interest in conservation (P. sylvestris var. 10 nevadensis and A. opalus subsp. granatense). 11 12 Experimental design 13 Seedlings one- or two-year-old were planted in spring (March-April) between 1997 and 14 2001 at each study site using two reforestation techniques: (i) a traditional technique of 15 planting target seedlings in open interspaces without vegetation (Open microsite), and 16 (ii) an alternative technique of planting seedlings under the canopy of shrubs (Shrub 17 microsite) intermingled with the open microsites. Seedlings, provided by the Junta de 18 Andalucía (Consejería de Medio Ambiente), were grown in nurseries under similar 19 conditions. In the case of Acer opalus subsp. granatense and Pinus sylvestris var. 20 nevadensis, rarely available in nurseries, seedlings came from seeds collected from 21 adults near the planting sites and seeded in a nursery located at La Cortijuela Botanical 22 Garden (Sierra Nevada National Park). The most abundant shrub species at each site 23 were chosen as nurse plants. In total, we used 16 nurse plant species and 11 target 24 species, for a total of 146 different plot-nurse shrub-target species combinations 25 (experimental cases, hereafter; see Appendix 1). Between 50-60 individually-tagged

1 seedlings were planted per plot-nurse shrub-target species combination. In both Shrub 2 and Open microsites, an automatic auger 12 cm in diameter was used to dig the planting holes 40 cm deep, in an attempt to minimize disturbance to nurse and soil structure. 3 4 Seedlings were examined in June, before the summer drought, and those that died from transplant shock were excluded from the experiment. By September-October, 5 6 following first autumn rains, we recorded two variables per seedling: 1) survival, and 7 the cause of mortality in case of death; and 2) growth, quantified as the elongation of 8 the apical shoot after the first growing season. 9 The dataset was sorted according to five grouping variables to respond to the 10 specific questions posed in this study: 11 1) Target species were classified into four functional groups based on life habits 12 and ecological similarity: shrubs (which included Juniperus oxycedrus, Rhamnus 13 alaternus, Crataegus monogyna and Retama sphaerocarpa), deciduous (which included 14 Acer opalus subsp. granatense, Quercus pyrenaica and Quercus faginea), 15 Mediterranean lowland evergreen (which included *Quercus ilex* and *Pinus halepensis*) 16 and mountain pines (which included *Pinus nigra* and *Pinus sylvestris* var. *nevadensis*). 17 2) Nurse shrubs were classified into four functional groups based on 18 architectural and ecological traits: 1) legumes (*Ulex parviflorus, Genista versicolor*, 19 Genista umbellata, Ononis aragonensis, Adenocarpus decorticans); 2) small shrubs 20 (Salvia lavandulifolia, Thymus mastichina, Thymus vulgaris, Rosmarinus officinalis, 21 Santolina canescens, Artemisia campestris); 3) deciduous spiny shrubs (Prunus 22 ramburii, Crataegus monogyna, Berberis hispanica); and 4) rockroses (Cistus albidus, 23 Cistus monspeliensis). 24 3) Altitude, by classifying experimental cases into both low (below 1400 m

a.s.l.) and high altitude sites (above 1400 m a.s.l.).

4) Aspect, by classifying experimental cases into two classes: sunny (south facing slopes) or shady (north-facing slopes).

5) Year, based on the start of the study (1997, 2000, 2001). Experimental cases
conducted in 1998 were not included in this analysis because of their low number (n =
3).

6

7

Data analysis

8 The effect of planting technique (Open versus Shrub microsites) in reforestation success 9 was analysed using meta-analysis. We employed this procedure because the 10 heterogeneity in the different experiments performed with respect to several factors, 11 such as initial conditions, timing, and nurse and tree identity, did not fulfil the 12 requirements of ordinary statistic analyses. Nevertheless, meta-analysis is a powerful 13 statistical tool to synthesize results from independent studies beyond their differences, 14 emphasizing patterns that are not obvious looking at single studies (Goldberg et al. 15 1999). Specifically, when sample sizes are small or the intensity of an effect is low (as it 16 was in some of our studies), meta-analysis controls for Type II statistical error (Arnquist 17 and Wooster1995). This characteristic of meta-analytical techniques has much 18 relevance in the field of applied ecology where management decisions based on 19 erroneous research results can have significant negative repercussions. 20 Prior to the meta-analysis, we summarized our database by the calculation of the 21 Relative Neighbour Effect index (RNE, sensu Markham and Chanway 1996) for each 22 experimental case (either for seedling survival or growth). This index is an estimation of 23 the magnitude and sign of the interspecific interaction, and ranges from -1 to 1, with 24 negative values indicating facilitation between neighbours and positive values 25 indicating competition. We used RNE instead of the common Relative Competitive

1 Intensity (RCI) because RCI has no minimum value, and therefore gives extreme 2 negative values when plant performance is greater in the presence than in the absence of 3 neighbours. For seedling survival, RNE was calculated as the difference in survival with 4 and without nurse shrubs relative to the case with the greatest survival in the pair. For 5 growth, RNE was calculated using means of seedling growth in each plot. Because 6 survival and growth can be influenced by the initial seedling height, we checked the 7 correlation between them, which proved non-significant. Thus, we deleted initial 8 seedling height data throughout all the study. All indices, as well as subsequent 9 statistical analyses, were performed using one-year survival and growth data in order to 10 standardize time scales between experiments. Our previous experience shows that, in 11 Mediterranean environments, the first summer after planting is the main mortality factor 12 for seedling survival (with mortalities of even 90% of the individuals planted), and so the success of a reforestation can be properly evaluated on the basis of first-summer 13 14 results (Vilagrosa et al. 1997, Rey-Benayas 1998, Maestre et al. 2001, Castro et al. 15 2002).

16 We used the mixed-model procedure which appears to be more accurate than the 17 fixed-model because it assumes random variation between studies within a class instead 18 of the sharing of a single true effect size (Gurevitch and Hedges 2001). We chose the 19 standardized difference between means (*d index*) to estimate the effect of the presence 20 of shrubs on two response variables: seedling survival and seedling growth. To calculate 21 the effect sizes using survival data, we grouped the experimental cases carried out in the 22 same study site and year with the same target and nurse shrub species, and calculated 23 the means of the two groups (experimental and controls) as well as the standard 24 deviations for these means. To calculate the effect sizes using growth data, we used 25 each of the 146 experimental cases independently with the condition that at least two

individuals survived in both treatments. The magnitudes of effect sizes were interpreted
 sensu Cohen (1969).

3	Sensitivity analyses were used to control dependence between data (Gates 2002).
4	We performed an additional analysis restricting the data to one data point for each study
5	site. The effect of shrubs on planted seedlings was first assessed for the entire dataset.
6	Then we evaluated the homogeneity of results among groups of each of the five,
7	grouping variables by using the Q statistic (Hedges and Olkin 1985, Cooper and Hedges
8	1994). We found a significant covariation between some grouping variables: <i>P</i> .
9	halepensis and shrubs were always at low altitudes, whereas deciduous species, P. nigra
10	and <i>P. sylvestris</i> var. <i>nevadensis</i> were always at high altitudes ($\chi^2 = 44.37$, df = 3,
11	p<0.001). Therefore, the difference between altitudes in the effect of shrubs may reflect
12	differences between target species. To correct for this, we also examined altitudinal
13	effects for Q. ilex, the only species appearing at both altitudes.
1 /	
14	
14	Results
	Results Survival
15	
15 16	Survival
15 16 17	Survival In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival
15 16 17 18	<i>Survival</i> In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival (negative RNE values). A neutral interaction (RNE = 0) was found in 8 cases (5%),
15 16 17 18 19	<i>Survival</i> In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival (negative RNE values). A neutral interaction (RNE = 0) was found in 8 cases (5%), whereas only in 29 (20%) of the cases there was a negative RNE indicating antagonism
15 16 17 18 19 20	Survival In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival (negative RNE values). A neutral interaction (RNE = 0) was found in 8 cases (5%), whereas only in 29 (20%) of the cases there was a negative RNE indicating antagonism (Figure 1a). The result from this "vote-counting" approach was consistent with results
 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 	Survival In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival (negative RNE values). A neutral interaction (RNE = 0) was found in 8 cases (5%), whereas only in 29 (20%) of the cases there was a negative RNE indicating antagonism (Figure 1a). The result from this "vote-counting" approach was consistent with results from the meta-analysis. Across all studies, shrubs had a large positive significant effect
 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 	Survival In 109 of the 146 experimental cases (75%), shrubs increased seedling survival (negative RNE values). A neutral interaction (RNE = 0) was found in 8 cases (5%), whereas only in 29 (20%) of the cases there was a negative RNE indicating antagonism (Figure 1a). The result from this "vote-counting" approach was consistent with results from the meta-analysis. Across all studies, shrubs had a large positive significant effect on seedling survival, with a grand mean effect size of $d_{++} = 0.89$ (CI = 0.51 - 1.27). The

mortality was summer drought, whereas the remaining 2% was attributable to herbivore
damage (trampling, uprooting, browsing).

3 The effect of shrubs significantly differed between target species ($Q_B = 49.55$, df = 3, P < 0.0001). Whereas the effect was significantly different from zero for 4 5 Mediterranean evergreen, deciduous and shrubs, it was not significant for mountain 6 pines (Figure 2a). The magnitude of the effect varied from low for mountain pines, 7 through large for deciduous, to very large for Mediterranean evergreen and shrubs. 8 Between nurses, the effect varied from significantly large and positive for legumes and 9 small shrubs (facilitation), through non-significantly medium and positive for deciduous 10 spiny, to significantly large and negative for rockrose (antagonism; Figure 2b). 11 On average, shrubs provided stronger facilitation at the low altitude than at the 12 high altitude ($Q_B = 41.42$, df = 1, P < 0.0001; Figure 2c). The same result was found 13 when the relative contribution of altitude to the variation in the shrub effect was 14 analysed for Q. *ilex* alone, with a significantly higher effect size at the low altitude than 15 at the high altitude ($Q_B = 14.92$, df = 1, P < 0.0001). Facilitation by shrubs had a 16 significant effect both in the sunny group and in the shady group, the effect size significantly being larger ($Q_B = 43.59$, df = 1, p<0.0001) in the sunny slopes than in the 17 18 shady ones (Figure 2d). 19 Comparisons between years revealed a significant effect of shrubs on seedling 20 survival in 2000 and 2001 ("dry years"), but not in 1997 ("wet year") ($Q_B = 48.51$, df = 21 2, *P* < 0.0001; Figure 2e). 22 23 Growth 24 The RNE for growth could be calculated only in 68% experimental cases, where more

than one seedling survived. Of these cases, 76% showed higher growth in Shrubs

1	compared to Open (negative RNE values), and the remaining 24% reported higher
2	growth in Open (positive RNE; Figure 1b). These results also agreed with those from
3	the meta-analysis. On pooling studies, we found a significant, but small mean effect of
4	shrubs on seedling growth on average ($d_{++} = 0.27$;CI = 0.15 - 0.39). Seedlings planted
5	under shrubs grew more during the first growing season than did seedlings planted in
6	open areas. The sensitivity analysis showed a similar general result at the study-site
7	level ($d_{++} = 0.3$; CI = 0.05 - 0.55). Thus, interdependence did not bias the results.
8	There were significant differences between target groups in the effect of shrubs
9	on growth ($Q_B = 82.20, 1 \text{ df}, P < 0.0001$); statistically significant differences were only
10	found for Mediterranean evergreen and deciduous (Figure 3a). Among nurses, the effect
11	was significant for legumes, stunted and spiny, but not for rockroses; legumes registered
12	the highest values of any group (Figure 3b).
13	As in survival, the effect was significantly larger at the low than at the high
14	altitude ($Q_B = 59.34$, 1 df, $P < 0.0001$; Figure 3c). Significant differences were found
15	between aspect categories ($Q_B = 84.49$, 1 df, $P < 0,0001$), both showing a small effect of
16	shrubs over growth (Figure 3d).
17	Finally, the effect of shrubs varied from non-significant in the wet year of 1997
18	to significantly positive in the dry years of 2000 and 2001 ($Q_B = 98.03$, 2 df, $P <$
19	0.0001), when seedling planted under shrubs grew more than did seedlings planted in
20	open areas (Figure 3e).
21	
22	Discussion
23	Our results demonstrated that pioneer shrubs have a generally positive effect on woody-
24	seedling survival and initial growth in Mediterranean mountains. Seedling survival
25	under shrubs more than doubled in comparison to Open microsites, and even up to four

1 -fold in some experimental cases (see Appendix 1). Of our 146 experimental cases, less 2 than a 20% showed positive RNE for survival (indicating competitive interactions). In 3 most cases, RNE was lower than 0.2, showing a very weak negative effect. Similarly, in 4 the 76% of the experimental cases seedlings planted under shrubs grew more than did 5 seedlings planted in open areas (giving a negative RNE). Therefore, we found a 6 consistent beneficial effect in both survival and initial growth, in contrast to studies that 7 have reported a negative nurse effect in seedling growth, despite the positive effects at 8 other life cycle stages (Holzapfel and Mahall 1999, Kitzberger et al. 2000). These 9 results agree with the hypothesis that there is little competition between shrubs and tree 10 seedlings in the Mediterranean Basin (Vilá and Sardans 1999). Thus, our experiments 11 show that facilitation between shrubs and tree seedlings in Mediterranean environments 12 is not a local or sporadic phenomenon restricted to a few species assemblages and 13 environmental conditions, but a more widespread phenomenon. From a conceptual 14 standpoint, these results show that pioneer shrubs benefit the establishment of woody, 15 late-successional species (Clements 1916, Addicot 1984), according to the model of 16 succession by facilitation (Connell and Slatyer 1977). 17 18 The role of the interacting species in the net effect of shrubs 19 We found relevant differences between target species in their response to the presence 20 of nurse shrubs. Among trees, Quercus spp. and Acer opalus subsp. granatense showed 21 the greatest response both for survival and growth, possibly as a consequence of being 22 late-successional, shade-tolerant species (Zavala et al. 2000, Gómez et al. 2001b). 23 Montane pines had the lowest response in accordance with their shade-intolerant nature 24 (Ceballos and Ruíz de la Torre 1971, Nikolov and Helmisaari 1992), although 25 association with shrubs was still beneficial, given the harsh conditions of Mediterranean

1 summer (Gómez et al. 2001a, Castro et al. 2002). However, shrub seedlings responded 2 more than any tree species to the presence of nurse shrubs, with Rhamnus alaternus and 3 Crataegus monogyna showing the greatest and Retama sphaerocarpa the lowest 4 increase in survival and growth (see Appendix 1). This result, together with the higher 5 values of survival in comparison to any other target species, makes the planting of late-6 successional shrubs under primary-successional shrubs the most effective way of 7 accelerating succession in degraded sites where the direct recovery of the tree cover can 8 be very difficult, if not impossible.

9 Our work also demonstrates differences between shrubs in their facilitative 10 effect. The magnitude and sign of the nurse effect on seedling survival varied from large 11 and positive for legumes and small shrubs, through medium and positive for deciduous 12 spiny shrubs, to large and negative for rockroses. The differential effect of nurse shrubs 13 may be related to characteristics of the functional groups. Legumes may increase 14 survival and growth by improving soil-nutrients composition due to nitrogen fixation, a 15 scarce nutrient in Mediterranean soils (Callaway 1995, Alpert and Mooney 1996, 16 Franco-Pizaña et al. 1996). On the other hand, radiation during summer in 17 Mediterranean environments is usually excessive, causing photoinhibition of 18 photosynthesis in many plant species (Valladares 2003). In this context, shrub canopy 19 shade can favour seedling performance by reducing radiation in comparison to open 20 areas. In fact, additional experiments conducted in two of the study zones included in 21 the meta-analysis (Gómez et al. 2001b) show that the modification of the microclimate 22 under the canopy of the nurses (e.g. lower radiation and temperature and higher 23 atmosphere and soil humidity) is a main facilitative mechanism of woody seedling 24 establishment (see also Rey-Benayas 1998, Rey-Benayas et al. 2002, Maestre 2002). 25 Finally, in the case of rockroses, the negative effect on the survival of target species is

1 presumably due to allelopathic leachates characteristic of this family (Robles et al.

1999), particularly for *Cistus albidus*. Although the grouping of experimental cases that
involved the use of meta-analytical techniques prevented the analysis of differences at
the species level, these results show that the identity of the nurses matters. This should
be taken into account when designing reforestation programmes, in order to choose the
nurse shrub species that maximize survival probabilities.

- 7
- 8

The importance of environmental variability in plant-plant interactions

9 The facilitative effect was consistent in all the environmental situations explored. 10 However, as predicted by our initial hypothesis, the strength of the interaction was 11 significantly lower (and not statistically significant) in the plantings carried out in the 12 wet year (1997) than in the two dry years (2000, 2001). The summer of 1997 was mild 13 and wet compared to the other summers of the study period, and, in accordance soil-14 water content in the middle of the summer was significantly greater in 1997 than in the 15 other two years (Figure 4). This water availability in the soil, although limited, may 16 have relieved stressed plants in 1997, helping them to survive until the arrival of autumn 17 rains. Consequently, the benefit of living in the shade of shrubs was less evident in the 18 wetter 1997 than in the drier 2000 and 2001.

With respect to the spatial gradient, the strength of the positive interaction was significantly higher at low altitudes and sunny slopes than at high altitudes or shady slopes. These results indicated a shift in the balance of competitive *versus* facilitative intensity on stress gradients (Bertness and Callaway 1994, Bruno et al. 2003). At low elevation and sunny slopes, low precipitation and high temperatures result in an intense summer drought, limiting seedling survival and growth more than does resource acquisition. Alleviation of such severe stress by nurse shrubs may benefit seedlings,

1 outweighing any effects of their competition for resources (Callaway and Walker 1997). 2 On the contrary, at high elevations and shady slopes, with lower summer temperatures 3 and higher precipitation (and thus less intense summer drought), the abiotic 4 environment barely limits the uptake of resources for plants, and consequently the 5 positive effects of shrubs is less notable (Callaway and Walker 1997). 6 In conclusion, the higher the temperature and irradiance in open areas, the more 7 important the protection of shrubs can be for a good water and temperature balance of 8 the seedlings, and thus the stronger the facilitative effect on their survival and initial 9 growth. Consequently, sites and years with stressful summer droughts promise the best 10 advantage of nurse plants for the recovery of degraded vegetation (Whisenant 1999, 11 Pickett et al. 2001). In these stressful scenarios, the presence of a habitat-modifying 12 pioneer shrub may enhance species diversity by providing structural refuge to a broad 13 array of woody species (Hacker and Gaines 1997, Stachowicz 2001). Additionally, by 14 their positive effect in a very sensitive life-history stage of woody species (seedling), 15 habitat-modifiers can increase the regional and local distribution of plants, allowing 16 woody species to colonize a broad range of ecological conditions. Given that nurse 17 plants facilitated some woody species more than others, pioneer shrubs in 18 Mediterranean ecosystems could be considered foundation species (Dayton 1972) or 19 ecosystem engineers (Jones et al. 1994) able to influence the species composition, 20 abundance and the spatial structure of the plant community. 21 22 Management implications 23 Our experimental results have clearly shown that the use of nurse shrubs facilitates 24 seedling establishment in many different ecological settings in Mediterranean 25 mountains (altitude, exposure, successional phase of the pre-existing vegetation, level

of local environmental stress). Although we monitored one-year survival, the benefit of
planting seedlings under shrubs could be translated beyond this stage to sapling or
reproductive stages, since natural regeneration in Mediterranean ecosystems in mainly
limited at the seedling stage (Herrera et al. 1994, Rey and Alcantara 2000, Gómez
2003), and experimental reforestations reveal the bottleneck of first-summer mortality
(Maestre et al. 2001, Castro et al. 2002, Castro et al. *in press*).

7 Since most shrub species studied acted as nurses, and most planted species were 8 effectively facilitated, this technique could be used to design multi-specific 9 reforestations. To plant many woody species would avoid problems derived from 10 mono-specific plantations such as fire propagation (Moreno 1999) or soil impoverish 11 (Scott et al. 1999), and additionally would increase the diversity and heterogeneity of 12 the recovered woodlands. Moreover, since the response of shrub seedlings to the 13 presence of a nurse plant was larger than the response of tree seedlings, this technique 14 could be used to design a two-phase reforestation strategy, mimicking the natural 15 process. During the first phase, shrubs and sun-tolerant early-successional trees would 16 be planted in association with pioneer shrubs, and in a second phase the shade-tolerant 17 late-successional trees would be introduced under the canopy of the former ones. 18 Our study implies that the removal of shrubs is not appropriate for reforestation 19 in Mediterranean mountains. This traditional procedure is rooted in techniques 20 developed in Central and Northern Europe (Groome 1989, Bauer 1991), where summer 21 mesic climatic conditions and dense plant cover often result in competition for light and

22 nutrients. This ecological context strongly differs from Mediterranean environments,

23 where stressful conditions, primarily summer drought, severely limit the uptake of

resources by the plant, allowing habitat amelioration provided by pioneer shrubs to

25 become the major determinant of spatial distribution of woody seedlings. Therefore, a

1	new paradigm for the science of restoration of Mediterranean forests, based on the
2	natural spatial patterns of regeneration of woody vegetation (with shrubs as microsites
3	for recruitment), emerges from the results of the present work as well as other previous
4	studies (Castro et al. 2002, Maestre et al. 2001, 2002). Furthermore, given that the
5	facilitative effect increases with abiotic stress, this technique might be more relevant
6	under the predicted rise in temperatures, dryness and rainfall variability (with more
7	episodes of drought) for the Mediterranean region under global warming (IPCC 2001).
8	Thus, benefits of this technique will be greater in coming years under a scenario of
9	climatic change.
10	
11	Acknowledgements
12	We thank the Consejería de Medio Ambiente, Junta de Andalucía, and the Direction of
13	the National Park of Sierra Nevada, for permission to field work, constant support and
14	facilities. We are also especially grateful to Empresa de Transformación Agraria S.A.
15	(TRAGSA) for carrying out the experimental reforestation. We thank Sergio de Haro
16	and several students for field assistance. David Nesbitt looked over the English version
17	of the manuscript. This study was supported by a PFPU-MECD grant to L.G. and PFPI-
18	MCYT to E.B., and projects FEDER 1FD97-0743-CO3-02 and REN 2001-4552-E from
19	MCYT.
20	
21	Literature cited
22	Addicot, J. H. 1984. Mutualistic interactions in population and community processes.
23	Pages 437-455 in P. W. Price, C. N. Slobodchikoff, and W. S. Gauss, editors. A New
24	Ecology: Novel Approaches to Interactive Systems, Wiley, New York.

1	Alpert, P., and H. A. Mooney. 1996. Resource heterogeneity generated by shrubs and
2	topography on coastal sand dunes. Vegetatio 122:83-93.
3	Arnqvist, G., and D. Wooster. 1995. Meta-analysis: synthesizing research findings in
4	ecology and evolution. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 10 :236-240.
5	Bauer, E. 1991. Los montes de España en la historia. 2 nd edition. Ministerio de
6	Agricultura y Pesca, Madrid, Spain.
7	Bertness, M. D., and R. M. Callaway. 1994. Positive interactions in communities.
8	Trends in Ecology and Evolution 9 :191-193.
9	Bertness, M. D., G. H. Leonard, J. M. Levine, P. R. Schmidt, and A. O. Ingraham. 1999.
10	Testing the relative contribution of positive and negative interactions in rocky
11	intertidal communities. Ecology 80:2711-2726.
12	Blondel, J., and J. Aronson. 1999. Biology and Wildlife in the Mediterranean Region.
13	Oxford University Press, Oxford.
14	Brooker, R. W., and T. V. Callaghan. 1998. The balance between positive and negative
15	interactions and its relationship to environmental gradients: a model. Oikos 81:196-
16	207.
17	Bruno, J. F., J. J. Stachowicz, and M. D. Bertness. 2003. Inclusion of facilitation into
18	ecological theory. Trends in Ecology and Evolution 30 in press.
19	Callaway, R. M. 1995. Positive interactions among plants. The Botanical Review
20	61 :306-349.
21	Callaway, R. M., E. H. DeLucia, D. Moore, R. Nowak, and W. H. Schlesinger. 1996.
22	Competition and facilitation: contrasting effects of Artemisia tridentata on desert vs.
23	montane pines. Ecology 77:2130-2141.
24	Callaway, R. M., and L. R. Walker. 1997. Competition and facilitation: a synthetic
25	approach to interactions in plant communities. Ecology 78:1958-1965.

1	Callaway, R. M., and F. I. Pugnarire. 1999. Facilitation in plant communities. Pages
2	623-648 in F.I. Pugnaire, and F. Valladares, editors. Handbook of Functional Plant
3	Ecology. Marcel Dekker, New York.
4	Callaway, R. M., R. W. Brooker, P. Choler, Z. Kikvidze, C. J. Lortie, R. Michalet, L.
5	Paolini, F. I. Pugnaire, B. Newingham, E. T. Aschehoug, C. Armas, D. Kikodze, and
6	B. J. Cook. 2002. Positive interactions among alpine plants increase with stress.
7	Nature 417 :844-848.
8	Casper, B. B. 1996. Demographic consequences of drought in the herbaceous perennial
9	Cryptantha flava: effects of density, associations with shrubs, and plant size.
10	Oecologia 106 :144-152.
11	Castro J., R. Zamora, J. A. Hódar, and J. M. Gómez. 2002. Use of shrubs as nurse
12	plants: a new technique for reforestation in Mediterranean mountains. Restoration
13	Ecology 10 :297-305.
14	Castro, J., R. Zamora, J. A. Hódar, J. M. Gómez, and L. Gómez. Benefits of using
15	shrubs as nurse plants for reforestation in Mediterranean mountains: a 4-year study.
16	Restoration Ecology in press.
17	Ceballos, L. and J. Ruiz de la Torre. 1971. Árboles y arbustos de la España peninsular.
18	Instituto Forestal de Investigaciones y Experiencias.
19	Clements, F. E. 1916. Plant Succession. Carnegie Institution of Washington. Publication
20	242.
21	Cohen, J. 1969. Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioural Sciences. Academic
22	Press, New York.
23	Connell, J. H., and R. O. Slatyer. 1977. Mechanisms of succession in natural
24	communities and their role in community stability and organization. The American

25 Naturalist **111**:1119-1144.

1	Cooper, H., and L. Hedges. 1994. The Handbook of Research Synthesis. Russell Sage
2	Foundation, New York, NY.
3	Dayton, P.K. 1972. Toward an understanding of community resilience and the potential
4	effects of enrichment to the benthos at McMurdo Sound, Antarctica. Pages 81-95 in
5	B. C. Parker, editor. Proceedings of the colloquium on conservation problems in
6	Antarctica. Allen Press, Lawrence, Kansas, USA.
7	De las Heras, J., J. J. Martínez-Sánchez, A. I. Gónzalez-Ochoa, P. Ferrandis, and J. M.
8	Herranz. 2002. Establishment of Pinus halepensis Mill. saplings following fire:
9	effects on competition with shrub species. Acta Oecologica 23:91-97.
10	Delgado, R., G. Delgado, J. Párraga, E. Gámiz, M. Sánchez, and M. A. Tenorio. 1989.
11	Mapa de suelos, hoja 1027 (Güejar-Sierra). Instituto para la Conservación de la
12	Naturaleza.
13	di Castri, F. 1981. Mediterranean-type shrublands of the world. Pages 1-52 in
14	Ecosystems of the World 11: Mediterranean-type Shrublands. F. di Castri, D. W.
15	Goodall, and R. L. Specht, editors. Elsevier, Amsterdam.
16	Franco-Pizaña, J. G., T. E. Fulbright, D. T. Gardiner, and A. R. Tipton. 1996. Shrub
17	emergence and seedling growth in microenvironments created by Prosopis
18	glandulosa. Journal of Vegetation Science 7:257-264.
19	García, D., R. Zamora, J. A. Hódar, J. M. Gómez, and J. Castro. 2000. Yew (Taxus
20	baccata L.) regeneration is facilitated by fleshy-fruited shrubs in Mediterranean
21	environments. Biological Conservation 95:31-38.
22	García-Canseco, V. 2001. Parque Nacional de Sierra Nevada. Canseco Editors, Spain.
23	García-Salmeron, J. 1995. Manual de repoblaciones forestales II. Escuela Técnica
24	Superior de Ingenieros de Montes, Madrid, Spain.

1	Gates, S. 2002. Review of methodology of quantitative reviews using meta-analysis in
2	ecology. Journal of Animal Ecology 71:547-557.
3	Gómez, J. M., L. Gómez, R. Zamora, and J. Montes. 2001a. Problemas de regeneración
4	de especies forestales autóctonas en el espacio natural protegido de Sierra Nevada.
5	Pages 212-218 in Montes para la sociedad de un nuevo milenio Vol. 6. Ed. Coria
6	Gráfica, Sevilla, Spain.
7	Gómez, J. M., D. García, and R. Zamora. 2003. Impact of vertebrate acorn- and
8	seedling-predators on a Mediterranean Quercus pyrenaica forest. Forest Ecology and
9	Management 180:125-134.
10	Gómez, J. M. 2003. Importance of burial and microhabitat on Quercus ilex early
11	recruitment: non-additive effects on multiple demographic processes. Plant Ecology
12	in press.
13	Gómez, L., R. Zamora, J. A. Hódar, J. M. Gómez, and J. Castro. 2001b. Facilitation of
14	tree seedlings by shrubs in Sierra Nevada (SE Spain): disentangling the mechanisms.
15	Pages 395-400 in K. Radoglou, editor. Forest research: a challenge for an integrated
16	european approach. NAGREF. Forest Research Institute, Thessaloniki, Greece.
17	Goldberg, D. E., T. Rajaniemi, J. Gurevitch, and A. Stewart-Oaten. 1999. Empirical
18	approaches to quantifying interaction intensity: competition and facilitation along
19	productivity gradients. Ecology 80:1118-1131.
20	Greenlee, J., and R. M. Callaway. 1996. Effects of abiotic stress on the relative
21	importance of interference and facilitation in montane bunchgrass communities in
22	western Montana. The American Naturalist 148:386-396.
23	Groome, H. 1989. Historia de la política forestal. Pages 137-149 in C. Ortega
24	Hernández-Agero, editor. El libro rojo de los bosques españoles. ADENA-WWF,
25	Madrid, Spain.

1	Grove, A. T., and O. Rackham. 2001. The Nature of Mediterranean Europe: an
2	Ecological History. Yale University Press, London.
3	Gurevitch J., and L. V. Hedges. 2001. Meta-analysis: combining the results of
4	independent experiments. Pages 347-369 in S.M. Scheiner, and J. Gurevitch, editors.
5	Design and Analysis of Ecological Experiments. Oxford University Press, New
6	York, NY.
7	Hacker, S., and S. D. Gaines. 1997. Some implications of direct positive interactions for
8	community species diversity. Ecology 78: 1990-2003.
9	Hedges, L. V., and I. Olkin. 1985. Statistical Methods for Meta-analysis. Academic
10	Press, New York.
11	Herrera, C. M., P. Jordano, L. López-Soria, and J. A. Amat. 1994. Recruitment of a
12	mast-fruiting, bird-dispersed tree: bridging frugivore activity and seedling
13	establishment. Ecological Monographs 64: 315-344.
14	Holmgren, M., A. M. Segura, and E. R. Fuentes. 2000. Limiting mechanisms in the
15	regeneration of the Chilean matorral. Plant Ecology 147:49-57.
16	Holzapfel, C., and B. E. Mahall. 1999. Bidirectional facilitation and interference
17	between shrubs and annuals in the Mojave desert. Ecology 80:1747-1761.
18	Ibañez I., and E.W. Schupp. 2001. Positive and negative interactions between
19	environmental conditions affecting Cercocarpus ledifolius seedling survival.
20	Oecologia 129 :543-550.
21	IPCC. Climate Change 2001: Third Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel
22	on Climate Change (WG I & II). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
23	Jones, C. G., J. H. Lawton, and M. Shachak. 1994. Organisms as ecosystem engineers.
24	Oikos 69 :373-386.

1	Kitzberger, T., D. F. Steinaker, and T. T. Veblen. 2000. Effects of climatic variability
2	on facilitation of tree establishment in Northern Patagonia. Ecology 80:1914-1924.
3	Maestre, F. T., S. Bautista, J. Cortina, and J. Bellot. 2001. Potential for using facilitation
4	by grasses to establish shrubs on a semiarid degraded steppe. Ecological
5	Applications 11 :1641-1655.
6	Maestre, F. T., S. Bautista, J. Cortina, G. Díaz, M. Honrubia, and R. Vallejo. 2002.
7	Microsite and mycorrhizal inoculum effects on the establishment of Quercus
8	coccifera in a semi-arid degraded steppe. Ecological Engineering 19:289-295.
9	Maestre, F. T. 2002. La restauración de la cubierta vegetal en zonas semiáridas en
10	función del patrón espacial de factores bióticos y abióticos. Ph. D. Thesis, University
11	of Alicante, Spain.
12	Marchand, H. 1990. Les Forêts Mêditerranéennes. Enjeux et perspectives. Les
13	fascicules du Plan Bleu, 2. Economica, Paris.
14	Markham, J. H., and C. P. Chanway. 1996. Measuring plant neighbour effects.
15	Functional Ecology 10:548-549.
16	Mesón, M., and M. Montoya. 1993. Selvicultura mediterránea. Mundi Prensa, Madrid.
17	Moravec, J. 1990. Regeneration of NW Africa Pinus halepensis forests following fire.
18	Vegetatio 87 :29-36.
19	Moreno, J. M. 1999. Forest fires: trends and implications in desertification prone areas
20	of Southern Europe. Pages 115-150 in P. Balabanis, D. Peter, A. Ghazi, and M.
21	Tsogas, editors. Mediterranean desertification. Research results and policy
22	implications. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities,
23	Luxembourg.

1	Nikolov, N., and H. Helmisaari. 1992. Silvics of the circumpolar boreal forest tree
2	species. Pages 13-84 in H. H. Shugart, R. Leemans and G. B. Bonan, editors. A
3	System Analysis of the Global Boreal Forest. Cambridge University Press, UK.
4	Pickett, S. T. A., M. L. Cadenasso, and S. Bartha. 2001. Implications from the Buell-
5	Small Succession Study for vegetation restoration. Applied Vegetation Science 4:
6	41-52.
7	Pugnaire, F. I., P. Haase, J. Puigdefábregas, M. Cueto, S. C. Clark, and L. D. Incoll.
8	1996a. Facilitation and succession under the canopy of a leguminous shrub, Retama
9	sphaerocarpa, in a semi-arid environment in south-east Spain. Oikos 76:455-464.
10	Pugnaire, F. I., P. Haase, and J. Puigdefábregas. 1996b. Facilitation between higher
11	plant species in a semiarid environment. Ecology 77:1420-1426.
12	Pugnaire, F. I., and M. T. Luque. 2001. Changes in plant interaction along a gradient of
13	environmental stress. Oikos 93: 42-49.
14	Rey, P. J., and J. M. Alcántara. 2000. Recruitment dynamics of a fleshy-fruited plant
15	(Olea europaea): connecting patterns of seed dispersal to seedling establishment.
16	Journal of Ecology 88: 622-633.
17	Rey-Benayas, J. M. 1998. Drought and survival in Quercus ilex L. seedlings after
18	irrigation and artificial shading on Mediterranean set-aside agricultural land. Annales
19	des Sciences Forèstieres 55:801-807.
20	Rey-Benayas, J. M., A. López-Pintor, C. García, N. de la Cámara, R. Strasser, and A.
21	Gómez-Sal. 2002. Early establishment of planted Retama sphaerocarpa seedlings
22	under different levels of light, water and weed competition. Plant Ecology 159:201-

23 209.

1	Robles, C., G. Bonin, and S. Garzino. 1999. Autotoxic and allelopathic potentials of
2	Cistus albidus L. Comptes Rendus de l'Academie des Sciences, Serie III: Sciences
3	de la Vie 322 :677-685.
4	Rodó, X., and F. Comín. 2001. Fluctuaciones del clima mediterráneo: conexiones
5	globales y consecuencias regionales. Pages 1-35 in R. Zamora, and F. I. Pugnaire,
6	editors. Ecosistemas mediterráneos: análisis funcional. Colección Textos
7	Universitarios, Spain.
8	Rodríguez-Martínez, F., and M. E. Martín-Vivaldi. 1996. Hacia un modelo geográfico
9	del clima de Sierra Nevada: estado de la cuestión y perspectivas de investigación.
10	Pages 27-39 in J. Chacón, and J. L. Rosúa, editors. 1ª Conferencia Internacional
11	sobre Sierra Nevada: Conservación y Desarrollo Sostenible, Vol 1. University of
12	Granada, Spain.
13	Savill, P., J. Evans, D. Auclair, and J. Falck. 1997. Plantation Silviculture in Europe.
14	Oxford University Press, Oxford.
15	Scott, N. A., K. R. Tate, R. J. Ford, D. J. Giltrap, and C. T. Smith. 1999. Soil carbon
16	storage in plantation forests and pastures: land-use change implications. Tellus Series
17	B Chemical and Physical Meteorology 51: 326-335.
18	Stachowicz, J. J. 2001. Mutualism, facilitation, and the structure of ecological
19	communities. BioScience 51 :235-246.
20	Tielbörger K., and R. Kadmon. 2000. Temporal environmental variation tips the
21	balance between facilitation and interference in desert plants. Ecology 81:1544-1553.
22	Trabaud, L., C. Michels, and J. Grosman. 1985. Recovery of burnt Pinus halepensis
23	Mill. forests. II. Pine reconstitution after wildfire. Forest Ecology and Management
24	13 :167-179.

1	Valladares, F. 2003. Light heterogeneity and plants: from ecophysiology to species
2	coexistence and biodiversity. Progress in Botany 64:439-471.
3	Vilá, M., and J. Sardans. 1999. Plant competition in Mediterranean-type ecosystem.
4	Journal of Vegetation Science 10:281-294.
5	Vilagrosa, A., J. P. Seva, A. Valdecantos, J. Cortina, J. A. Alloza, I. Serrasolsas, V.
6	Diego, M. Abril, A. Ferran, J. Bellot, and V. R. Vallejo. 1997. Plantaciones para la
7	restauración forestal en la Comunidad Valenciana. Pages 435-546 in V. R. Vallejo,
8	editor. La restauración de la cubierta vegetal en la Comunidad Valenciana. Centro de
9	Estudios Ambientales del Mediterráneo y Generalitat Valenciana, Valencia, Spain.
10	Whisenant, S. G. 1999. Repairing Damaged Wildlands. Cambridge University Press,
11	Cambridge, UK.
12	Zavala, M. A., J. M. Espelta, and J. Retana. 2000. Constraints and trade-offs in
13	Mediterranean Plant Communities: the case of Holm Oak-Aleppo Pine forests. The

```
14 Botanical Review 66:120-149.
```

1Appendix 1. Summary of the 146 experimental cases (=plot-nurse shrub- target species2combination) integrating the meta-analysis. N_c and N_e refer to the number of seedlings3planted in control (Open) and experimental (Shrubs) microsites. RNE values show the4sign and magnitude of the interaction between shrubs and woody seedlings, both for5survival and growth. This index ranges from -1 to 1, with negative values indicating6facilitation and positive values competition. Spiny = *Crataegus monogyna*, *Berberis*7*hispanica* and *Prunus ramburii*. EC = experimental case.

8

EC	Year	Plot	Nurse	Target	Nc	Ne	RNE	RNE
			shrub	species			survival	growth
LOM	IA PAN	ADEI	ROS					
1	2001	1	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	23	30	- 0.74	0.72
2	2001	1	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	53	48	- 0.72	- 0.68
3	2001	2	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	8	19	0	
4	2001	2	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	25	23	- 0.64	- 0.85
5	2000	3	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	25	29	- 0.88	- 0.11
6	2000	3	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	25	26	- 1	
7	2000	3	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	29	30	- 0.34	- 0.30
8	2000	4	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	27	29	- 0.92	- 0.88
9	2000	4	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	26	28	- 0.84	- 0.08
10	2000	4	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	28	28	- 0.28	- 0.4
11	2000	5	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	25	29	- 0.63	- 0.37
12	2000	5	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	28	26	- 0.42	- 0.56
13	2000	5	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	29	30	- 0.35	- 0.09
14	2001	6	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	20	39	- 1	

15	2001	6	S. lavandulifolia	Q. pyrenaica	34	45	0	
16	2001	6	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	37	41	- 1	
17	2001	6	O. aragonensis	A. opalus granatense	44	39	0	
18	2001	6	O. aragonensis	Q. pyrenaica	46	45	- 1	
19	2001	6	O. aragonensis	Q. ilex	42	41	- 1	
20	2001	6	B. hispanica	A. opalus granatense	30	39	0	
21	2001	6	B. hispanica	Q. pyrenaica	45	45	0	
22	2001	6	B. hispanica	Q. ilex	44	41	- 1	
23	2001	7	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	29	40	- 1	
24	2001	7	S. lavandulifolia	Q. pyrenaica	39	17	- 0.14	- 1
25	2001	7	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	55	23	- 0.37	- 1
26	2001	7	P. ramburii	A. opalus granatense	37	40	- 1	
27	2001	7	P. ramburii	Q. pyrenaica	55	17	0.59	- 1
28	2001	7	P. ramburii	Q. ilex	63	23	0.02	- 1
29	2001	7	G. versicolor	A. opalus granatense	45	40	- 1	
30	2001	7	G. versicolor	Q. pyrenaica	57	17	0.40	- 1
31	2001	7	G. versicolor	Q. ilex	61	23	- 0.20	- 1
32	2001	8	C. monogyna	A. opalus granatense	20	10	- 1	
33	2001	8	C. monogyna	Q. ilex	58	34	- 1	
34	2001	8	C. monogyna	P. nigra	40	24	0	
35	2001	9	C. monogyna	A. opalus granatense	28	29	- 1	
36	2001	9	C. monogyna	Q. ilex	40	42	- 0.52	- 0.30
37	2001	9	C. monogyna	P. nigra	44	45	- 0.66	- 0.92
38	1997	10	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	37	50	0.08	- 0.06
39	1997	10	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	47	60	0.04	- 0.11

40	1997	10	Spiny	P. sylvestris	96	50	- 0.10	- 0.13
41	1997	10	Spiny	P. nigra	95	60	0.13	- 0.21
42	1997	11	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	43	50	- 0.48	0.31
43	1997	11	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	46	55	- 0.31	0.24
44	1997	11	Spiny	P. sylvestris	102	50	- 0.13	0.14
45	1997	11	Spiny	P. nigra	99	55	0.42	0.59
46	1997	12	S. lavandulifolia	P. sylvestris	44	49	- 0.65	0.12
47	1997	12	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	45	47	- 0.19	0.02
48	1997	12	Spiny	P. sylvestris	87	49	- 0.54	- 0.02
49	1997	12	Spiny	P. nigra	94	47	- 0.06	- 0.12
50	1998	13	S. lavandulifolia	Q. pyrenaica	48	48	- 0.36	
51	1998	14	S. lavandulifolia	Q. pyrenaica	51	47	- 0.05	
52	1998	15	S. lavandulifolia	Q. pyrenaica	45	45	- 0.38	
53	1997	16	Spiny	A. opalus granatense	15	15	- 0.13	- 0.39
54	1997	16	Spiny	P. sylvestris	13	15	04	0.18
55	1997	16	Spiny	P. nigra	16	15	- 0.27	- 0.11
56	1997	16	Spiny	Q. ilex	15	14	0.07	- 0.16
57	1997	17	Spiny	A. opalus granatense	12	12	- 0.40	- 0.34
58	1997	17	Spiny	P. sylvestris	11	12	- 0.08	0.43
59	1997	17	Spiny	P. nigra	13	12	0.34	0.05
60	1997	17	Spiny	Q. ilex	10	11	- 0.39	0.38
61	1997	18	Spiny	A. opalus granatense	12	11	- 0.08	- 0.32
62	1997	18	Spiny	P. sylvestris	10	11	0.45	- 0.85
63	1997	18	Spiny	P. nigra	10	12	0.34	0.09
64	1997	18	Spiny	Q. ilex	10	10	0.3	- 0.15

CORTIJUELA

65	2001	19	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	7	16	0.24	1
66	2001	19	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	19	20	0.73	
67	2001	19	P. ramburii	A. opalus granatense	14	16	0.52	0.18
68	2001	19	P. ramburii	Q. ilex	21	20	- 0.16	- 1
69	2001	19	C. monogyna	A. opalus granatense	10	16	0.47	- 0.67
70	2001	19	C. monogyna	Q. ilex	19	20	- 0.53	- 1
71	2001	20	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	8	17	- 0.06	- 1
72	2001	20	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	20	21	- 0.04	
73	2001	20	P. ramburii	A. opalus granatense	13	17	- 0.43	- 1
74	2001	20	P. ramburii	Q. ilex	14	21	- 0.89	- 1
75	2001	20	C. monogyna	A. opalus granatense	17	17	- 0.50	- 1
76	2001	20	C. monogyna	Q. ilex	19	21	- 0.93	
77	2001	21	S. lavandulifolia	A. opalus granatense	22	13	- 1	- 1
78	2001	21	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	30	47	- 1	
79	2001	21	B. hispanica	A. opalus granatense	32	13	- 1	- 1
80	2001	22	C. monogyna	A. opalus granatense	29	24	- 0.81	- 0.87
81	2001	22	C. monogyna	Q. ilex	46	37	- 1	
82	2001	22	T. mastichina	A. opalus granatense	39	24	- 0.85	- 0.64
83	2001	22	T. mastichina	Q. ilex	31	37	- 1	
ROS	ALES							
84	2000	23	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	45	65	0.04	- 0.07
85	2000	23	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	42	61	- 0.42	- 0.41
86	2000	23	C. albidus	P. nigra	42	65	1	
87	2000	23	C. albidus	Q. ilex	40	61	0.29	- 0.23

88	2000	24	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	55	58	- 0.7	- 0.34
89	2000	24	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	54	50	- 0.45	- 0.01
90	2000	24	C. albidus	P. nigra	58	58	0.83	- 0.43
91	2000	24	C. albidus	Q. ilex	55	50	- 0.05	0.56
92	2000	25	S. lavandulifolia	P. nigra	40	49	0.05	0.03
93	2000	25	S. lavandulifolia	Q. ilex	40	50	0.02	- 0.43
94	2000	25	C. albidus	P. nigra	40	49	1	
95	2000	25	C. albidus	Q. ilex	40	50	0.62	- 0.53
LÚJA	AR							
96	2000	26	R. officinalis	P. halepensis	78	47	- 0.17	- 0.18
97	2000	26	R. officinalis	Q. ilex	64	25	- 0.49	- 1
98	2000	26	U. parviflorus	P. halepensis	57	47	- 0.11	- 0.24
99	2000	26	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	65	25	- 0.69	- 1
LAN	JARÓN							
100	2000	27	U. parviflorus	P. halepensis	19	50	- 1	
101	2000	27	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	23	49	- 0.51	- 0.05
102	2000	27	G. umbellata	P. halepensis	21	50	- 1	
103	2000	27	G. umbellata	Q. ilex	23	49	- 0.82	- 0.08
104	2000	28	U. parviflorus	P. halepensis	26	50	- 1	
105	2000	28	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	31	50	- 0.90	
106	2000	28	G. umbellata	P. halepensis	28	50	- 1	
107	2000	28	G. umbellata	Q. ilex	29	50	- 0.91	
108	2000	28	C. monspeliensis	P. halepensis	28	50	- 1	
109	2000	28	C. monspeliensis	Q. ilex	30	50	- 0.92	
110	2000	29	U. parviflorus	P. halepensis	57	48	- 0.80	- 0.19

111	2000	29	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	48	50	- 0.82	- 0.37
112	2000	29	S. canescens	P. halepensis	46	48	- 0.95	- 0.17
113	2000	29	S. canescens	Q. ilex	48	50	- 0.84	- 0.35
114	2000	30	T. vulgaris	Q. pyrenaica	109	63	- 0.63	- 0.24
115	2000	30	T. vulgaris	Q. ilex	107	91	- 0.74	- 0.47
116	2000	30	A. campestris	Q. pyrenaica	104	63	- 0.02	- 0.30
117	2000	30	A. campestris	Q. ilex	100	91	- 0.53	- 0.03
VÁL	OR							
118	2000	31	<i>Festuca</i> sp.	P. nigra	50	50	- 0.75	- 0.31
119	2000	31	Festuca sp.	Q. ilex	7	46	- 0.95	- 1
120	2000	32	Festuca sp.	P. nigra	50	100	0	- 0.21
121	2000	32	Festuca sp.	Q. ilex	27	70	0.53	- 0.12
122	2000	32	A. decorticans	P. nigra	50	100	1	
123	2000	32	A. decorticans	Q. ilex	14	70	0.44	0.26
124	2000	33	S. canescenes	Q. ilex	25	25	0	
125	2000	33	S. canescenes	P. nigra	89	114	- 0.32	0.12
126	2000	33	S. canescenes	Q. pyrenaica	59	43	- 0.39	- 0.17
HUÉ	TOR							
127	2001	34	U. parviflorus	Q. faginea	29	26	- 1	
128	2001	34	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	30	31	- 0.67	0.39
129	2001	34	U. parviflorus	P. nigra	27	12	- 1	
130	2001	34	U. parviflorus	J. oxycedrus	30	25	- 0.06	- 0.24
131	2001	34	U. parviflorus	R. alaternus	26	36	- 0.62	- 0.87
132	2001	34	U. parviflorus	C. monogyna	30	39	- 0.49	- 0.75
133	2001	34	U. parviflorus	R. sphaerocarpa	34	32	- 0.11	

134	2001	35	U. parviflorus	Q. faginea	20	18	- 1	
135	2001	35	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	21	22	- 0.52	- 0.51
136	2001	35	U. parviflorus	P. nigra	14	10	- 1	
137	2001	35	U. parviflorus	J. oxycedrus	13	13	- 0.71	0.17
138	2001	35	U. parviflorus	R. alaternus	24	25	- 0.36	- 0.92
139	2001	35	U. parviflorus	C. monogyna	20	23	- 0.51	- 0.72
140	2001	35	U. parviflorus	R. sphaerocarpa	24	19	- 0.16	
141	2001	36	U. parviflorus	Q. ilex	47	45	- 0.04	- 0.47
142	2001	36	U. parviflorus	P. nigra	22	10	1	
143	2001	36	U. parviflorus	J. oxycedrus	38	22	- 0.26	0.73
144	2001	36	U. parviflorus	R. alaternus	52	32	- 0.46	0.65
145	2001	36	U. parviflorus	C. monogyna	51	35	0.10	0.93
146	2001	36	U. parviflorus	R. sphaerocarpa	47	35	- 0.01	

Table 1. Main characteristics of the seven study sites. Main shrub species represent species covering > 5% of the study area. a.s.l. = above sealevel.

Study site	Coordinates	Altitude	Aspect	Soil	Main shrub species
		(m a.s.l.)			
Loma	37°05'N 3°28'W	1850	N-NE	Calcareous	Salvia lavandulifolia, Ononis aragonensis, Genista scorpius
Panaderos					Crataegus monogyna, Berberis hispanica, Prunus ramburii
Cortijuela	37°05'N 3°28'W	1650	N-NE	Calcareous	S. lavandulifolia, C. monogyna, B. hispanica, P. ramburii,
					Thymus mastichina, Echinospartium bosissiere, Genista cinerea
Rosales	37°04'N 3°30'W	1800	S	Calcareous	Cistus albidus, S. lavadulifolia
Lanjarón	36°56'N 3°29'W	1230 - 1900	S	Siliceous	Genista umbellata, Cistus monspeliensis, Ulex parviflorus,
					Santolina canescens, Artemisia campestris, Thymus vulgaris
Lújar	36°52'N 3°23'W	465	N-NE	Calcareous	Rosmarinus officinalis, C. monspeliensis, U. parviflorus
Válor	37°02'N 3°06'W	1820 - 2000	S	Siliceous	S. canescens, Festuca sp., Adenocarpus decorticans,
					A. campestris
Huétor	37°15'N 3°27'W	1400	N-NE	Calcareous	U. parviflorus, C. monogyna

Figures

FIG. 1. Summary of results from experimental cases. We give Relative Neighbour effect (RNE) as an estimation of the magnitude of the effect of shrubs on seedling survival and growth. This index ranges from -1 to 1, with negative values indicating facilitation and positive values competition. Eight cases were removed from the figure because RNE = 0.

FIG. 2. Results of the mixed-model for survival. Values reported are the mean effect size (d+) and the 95% confidence interval. *P* shows the significance of the Q statistic for the difference between groups in the effect of nurse shrubs on survival. See *Methods* for a description of the grouping variables.

FIG. 3. Results of the mixed-model for growth. Values reported are the mean effect size (d+) and the 95% confidence interval. *P* shows the significance of the Q statistic for the difference between groups in the effect of nurse shrubs on growth. See *Methods* for a description of the grouping variables.

FIG. 4. Variability in summer abiotic conditions (soil water content, rainfall, and mean maximum temperature) among the three years of study. Climatic data were obtained in a meteorological station located in La Cortijuela Botanical Garden. This meteorological station is situated in the centre of the geographical area including all the study sites, representing the general climatic conditions in Sierra Nevada mountains. Volumetric soil-water content was recorded in an adjacent area at 15 cm depth during the first week of August using ThetaProbe sensors (Delta-T Devices Ltd., Cambridge, UK).

Figure 1.













