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**Diverging consequences of past forest management on plant and soil attributes in ancient oak forests of southwestern Iran**

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34 **Diverging consequences of past forest management on plant and soil**  
35 **attributes in ancient oak forests of southwestern Iran**

36 **Abstract**

37 The oak (*Quercus brantii* Lindl.) semiarid forests of western Iran are among the oldest  
38 and host a remarkable diversity. However, the originally high forests were largely  
39 converted to coppices and submitted to a long history of traditional management and  
40 human disturbances. We investigated the effect of past management and forest structure  
41 on soil properties and vegetation diversity on two forest systems: coppice-with-standards  
42 stands abandoned after an intense period of exploitation (CWS) and high forest stands  
43 (HF) submitted to a low intensity of management. We selected in each system three 1-2  
44 ha stands and sampled 30 plots to measure vegetation diversity, forest structure using  
45 structural indices and, main soil factors including bulk density, nutrients, organic carbon  
46 and porosity. We found a higher species diversity in HF than in CWS with respectively  
47 7 woody species in the former and only 4 in the latter as well as a higher structural  
48 complexity. Plant composition differed also between the two systems and multivariate  
49 analyses revealed clear associations between vegetation composition and soil factors in  
50 particular soil nutrients, soil porosity for HF and bulk density and texture for CWS. In  
51 fact, contents in soil nutrients were higher in HF than in CWS for total nitrogen (0.28 vs  
52 0.15 %), available phosphorus (22.82 vs 15.47 ppm), available nitrogen (0.28 vs 0.15  
53 ppm), and organic matter (2.58 vs 1.61 %) whereas soils of CWS showed a higher bulk  
54 density (1.39 vs 1.29) and a lower porosity (47.66 vs 51.50 %). This study thus revealed  
55 the legacy of the past forest management actions on the different components of the forest  
56 ecosystem. We concluded that the conservative management in high forests was more  
57 favourable for the protection of soil and vegetation diversity than in the traditional  
58 coppicing system.

59

60 **Keywords:** Natural regeneration, plant diversity, semiarid forest ecosystems, soil  
61 properties, Coppice

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## 67 **INTRODUCTION**

68 Forest ecosystems sustain different services and functions, such as carbon and nutrient  
69 cycling or water cycle regulation, critical for human populations. But at the same time,  
70 forests are highly vulnerable to unsustainable forest management and climate change-  
71 related disturbances such as wildfires or droughts (Byrnes et al., 2014). Forest  
72 management plays an important role in shaping the vegetation composition, plant  
73 diversity and forest structure. This influence depends on the intensity, nature, extension  
74 in space and time of the management actions as well as the type of the dominant species  
75 in the forest ecosystem (Mei et al., 2020; Strubelt et al., 2019; Scolastri et al., 2017;  
76 Govaert et al., 2020). It is widely recognized that most forests have been influenced for  
77 centuries by traditional activities and transformed to meet the human needs such as the  
78 coppice and coppice with standards systems to produce wood and other products (e.g.  
79 fodder, fruits, bark) (Dlamini, 2013; Magagnotti et al., 2018).

80 The coppice stands grow mainly from shoots that emerge from dormant buds on the  
81 stumps after the end of the cutting cycle. In each cycle, which lasts approximately  
82 between 10 and 30 years, single-stemmed trees scattered among coppice stools are  
83 retained (standards). These standard trees are allowed to grow for several coppice cycles,  
84 and one-third to one-quarter of them are cut in each cycle. This specific structure is  
85 defined as a coppice-with-standards (CWS) and represents a traditional forest system,  
86 which allows the production of more diverse wood products than the single coppice  
87 systems (CS) as it includes not only wood for fuel (coppice) but also timber for industry  
88 (standards). Over time, for various reasons, such as changing market demand or the  
89 replacement of wood with fossil fuels, these traditional systems have been willingly or  
90 unwillingly abandoned to the benefit of the high forest system (Lo Monaco et al., 2011;  
91 Bičák et al., 2001; Marchi et al., 2016).

92 High forests are composed of planted or seed-origin individuals and their cycles last  
93 between 50 and 200 years (Van Calster et al. 2008; Venanzi et al., 2019; Becker et al.,  
94 2017). Following tree harvesting, forest stands regenerate through interactions among  
95 propagules, including seeds in seed banks and those dispersed into a site (Lucas-Borja et  
96 al 2017). After this disturbance (tree harvesting), the floor and soil conditions change  
97 radically (Lucas-Borja et al., 2020) and are usually more favorable to the development of

98 new seedlings in comparison with preexisting conditions. Canopy characteristics,  
99 understory vegetation diversity, site factors and individual species performance were  
100 recognized to play crucial roles in natural regeneration forest (Modrý, 2004; Heydari et  
101 al., 2017 b). However, natural regeneration is an unpredictable process because of the  
102 complex interactions between biotic and abiotic factors determining the success of  
103 seedling establishment (Tardos et al., 2018).

104 The effects of these past management systems and their changes on various aspects of  
105 forest diversity and forest structure have not yet been fully investigated. Historical reports  
106 indicate that irregular and intense use of coppice and coppice-with-standards has led to  
107 degradation in forest stands (Hasel and Schwarz, 2006; Venanzi et al., 2020). It was also  
108 shown that forest stands that experienced heavy wood extraction 100 to 200 years ago  
109 have undergone major changes in terms of various structural features (Van Calster et al.,  
110 2008; Wäldchen et al., 2013). Besides, changes in management regimes such as  
111 conversion of coppices to high forests (or the reverse) can have significant effects on plant  
112 composition, plant diversity, seedling recruitment as well as on the relationships among  
113 these components and with various abiotic factors such as soil factors (e.g. Scolastrri et  
114 al., 2017). These different changes are closely linked to the modification of the overstorey  
115 structure creating various and contrasted environmental conditions or microclimates in  
116 the forest floor (Van Calster et al., 2007; Van Calster et al., 2008; Baeten et al., 2009;  
117 Heydari et al., 2017; Venanzi et al., 2019). In fact, the management regime deeply  
118 influences the dominant canopy cover (e.g. composition, openness, tree dimensions)  
119 which in turn modifies the development and composition of the understory (Van Calster  
120 et al., 2008). All these changes affect litter inputs in terms of quantity and quality and  
121 conditions of litter decomposition due to modifications of light and soil moisture  
122 availability. In turn, these processes influence soil nutrients which play a major role in  
123 the establishment of the tree regeneration (Heydari et al., 2017). When forest management  
124 is intense, physical and chemical soil properties can be negatively affected (e.g. soil  
125 compaction after harvesting operations) leading to restrictions on tree growth and natural  
126 regeneration (e.g. Marchi et al., 2016) although such negative impacts are not the rule  
127 (e.g. Venanzi et al., 2019). In this regard, some researchers have stated that traditional  
128 coppicing management is part of the long history of ecosystems, and cannot be seen as  
129 a disruption factor as it can support a high level of diversity (Gondard et al. 2006; Bartha  
130 et al., 2008; Mattioli et al. 2016; Müllerová et al., 2015; Della Longa et al., 2020).  
131 However, some other studies have emphasized the negative effects of repeated cuts on

132 soil properties, plant composition and regeneration (Nave et al., 2010; Marchi et al.,  
133 2016).

134 The oak (*Quercus brantii* Lindl.) forests of western Iran are considered to be among the  
135 oldest oak forests in the world. These originally high forests (i.e. regenerated by seeds)  
136 were converted to coppices or coppices with standards and were submitted to a long  
137 history of traditional management including frequent and traditional cutting, especially  
138 for firewood. An abrupt change occurred in the management of these forests with the  
139 nationalization policy of forests about 50 years ago (Valipour et al., 2014). Many forest  
140 stands came under government protection and the traditional system was abandoned to  
141 the benefit of a less intense management. As a consequence, old coppice-with-standards  
142 abandoned stands were largely dominant among the different forest types. Such fast  
143 changes in the management regime were also documented in European forests during the  
144 second half of the 19th century (e.g. Martin et al., 2015).

145 The effect of species composition on soil properties has been largely studied (Laganière  
146 et al., 2012; Waring et al., 2016; Heydari et al., 2020). However, the effects of different  
147 management measures, including long-term abandonment of coppice-with-standards, on  
148 the plant diversity of the forest floor and on the regeneration of woody species have not  
149 received such a large attention. Some studies have shown that active coppices compared  
150 to coppices abandoned for more than fifty years exhibit a reduced soil fertility (Martin et  
151 al., 2015). However, other studies have shown that 15 years is a sufficient time to recover  
152 soil conditions in deciduous forests (Marchi et al., 2016) or that no effect has been noticed  
153 on soil properties (Van Calster et al., 2007). Nevertheless, there is still an active debate  
154 about the economic and ecological advantages and disadvantages of the different  
155 management systems and the impact of the transition of one system to another (e.g.  
156 coppices vs high forests). In particular, there is a growing interest in redeveloping coppice  
157 systems in some communities mainly for economic reasons, in particular a fast production  
158 of biomass or firewood products and an easier regeneration, but also sometimes for  
159 ecological purposes such as to favor biodiversity linked to a variety of microhabitats due  
160 to the multi-stemmed growth form of the trees (Kirby et al. 2017; Yücesan et al., 2019;  
161 Riccioli et al., 2020; Mattioli et al. 2016). In this study, we evaluated various aspects such  
162 as forest structure, plant species diversity, regeneration and soil attributes in two forest  
163 systems: coppice-with-standards stands abandoned after an intense period of exploitation  
164 and high forest stands submitted to a low intensity of management. More specifically, we  
165 seek to answer the following two questions: 1) What is the influence of past forest

166 management on understorey plant diversity and shrubs/trees natural regeneration? 2) To  
167 what extent soil properties differ between the two management systems?  
168 We expect that the answers to these questions will help to better manage semi-arid oak  
169 forests and restore their remarkable diversity.

170

## 171 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 172 **Study area**

173 The forest stands under study were located within the same area (approximately 240 ha)  
174 in Zagros deciduous forests of south-western Iran (Fig. 1) and in very similar climatic and  
175 physiographic conditions. In this area, mean annual rainfall is 576.4 mm (Izeh  
176 meteorological station) with strong seasonal variations (from 0 mm in summer to a  
177 maximum of 294 mm in winter) and mean annual temperature is 19.1 °C. This climate  
178 can be classified as a semi-arid climate according to the De Martonne's climatic  
179 classification. The dominant soil in the study area is Inceptisol (Soil Survey Staff 2014)  
180 i.e. shallow calcareous soils with a clay-loam texture. Mean elevation ranges from 1400  
181 to 1650 m a.s.l. and the general topography is flat or moderate slopes (<25%). The area  
182 is covered by oak forests with an overstorey dominated by the Brant's oak (*Quercus brantii*  
183 Lindl.) and an understorey with different woody species in particular *Crataegus azarolus*,  
184 *Pistacia atlantica*, *Amygdalus orientalis*, *Acer monspessulanum*, *Amygdalus scoparia*,  
185 *Amygdalus lycioides* (Heydari et al., 2017 a). Cover of both strata is less than 25%.

186

### 187 **Forest management and sampling**

188 Forests of the study area were submitted to a traditional management which was intense  
189 to respond to the strong demand of the population in wood products particularly firewood  
190 and charcoal production. At present two main oak forest systems are found: i) old  
191 coppices with standards (CWS) and ii) old high forests (HF). The preexisting high forest  
192 was converted into a coppice with standards system and submitted to coppicing for  
193 centuries. However, in the middle of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, forests were nationalized and the  
194 traditional management was abandoned (Valipour et al., 2014). Instead, forests were  
195 protected against intense and frequent cuttings, firewood exploitation and grazing by  
196 fencing and a reinforced surveillance by the guards of the Natural Resources Office.  
197 Consequently, a shift in the forest structure occurred from young overexploited coppices  
198 with a low canopy cover to mature coppices with standards i.e. with trees of greater  
199 dimensions and a higher forest cover. The second type of forest structure (High Forests,

200 HF) are derived from some preexisting oak forests which were preserved from the intense  
201 traditional management for various reasons. In most cases, these forests were remote from  
202 villages or were willingly protected by their private owners. These forests are now  
203 composed of old trees and are not intensively exploited.

204 In this study, our aim is to evaluate the influence of two contrasted past management systems on  
205 soil properties, forest structure, plant composition and regeneration. To achieve this objective we  
206 have selected a total of six stands (three stands of 1 to 2 ha in each type: CWS and HF) spaced  
207 out 250 to 500 m in similar site conditions (in particular a flat topography and comparable soils).  
208 With this approach, we have tried to minimize possible confounding factors although we  
209 cannot formally exclude pre-existing site differences. Then, two transects of 200 m length  
210 and 250 m apart were set up in each stand with a random starting point. Five 20 m×20 m plots,  
211 spaced 50 m apart from each other, were placed along each transect i.e. a total of 30 plots in each  
212 system (CWS and HF).

213

#### 214 **Soil properties**

215 In each plot, three soil samples were collected up to 25 cm depth and then mixed in a  
216 composite sample. These samples were then sieved (2-mm diameter) and air-dried prior  
217 to physical and chemical analyses based on standard methods (see Heydari et al., 2017  
218 a). Soil analyses were carried out 15 days after sampling. Soil parameters included soil  
219 texture (contents in sand, silt and clay), soil porosity, soil organic carbon (OC), total  
220 nitrogen (N<sub>tot</sub>), available phosphorus (P<sub>ava</sub>), available potassium (K<sub>ava</sub>), electrical  
221 conductivity (EC). Additional undisturbed soil cores were collected for the determination  
222 of bulk density (BD) in the 0–15 cm mineral layer (Blake and Hartge 1986).

223

224

#### 225 **Vegetation and regeneration measurements**

226 In each plot, the large and small diameter of each tree's crown with a DBH > 7.5 cm were  
227 measured to compute the percentage of canopy cover of all woody species. The seedlings  
228 (height <1.30 m) were counted for each woody species on a 10m×10m subplot located in  
229 the center of the main plot and the cover of herbaceous species was visually estimated  
230 using four 1-m<sup>2</sup> subplots located in the four corners of the main plot (i.e. 30×4×2= 240  
231 subplots in each system).

232

233



234 **Stand structural indices**

235 In each plot, all trees and shrubs taller than 1.30 m were counted and diameter at breast  
236 height (with a tree caliper) and total height (with a Haga altimeter) of all tree species were  
237 measured. Then the following structural indices were computed at plot level:

238 .

239 The species mingling index (MI) was calculated using Eq. 1 (Pommerening, 2002):

240 
$$M_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n V_{ij} \quad M_j \in [0, 1] \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

241 where  $M_j$  is species mingling,  $n$  is the number of the nearest neighbors ( $n=3$ );  $V_{ij} = 1$ , if the  
242 reference tree  $i$  and neighbour tree  $j$  are different tree species and 0 otherwise. Lower values  
243 of MI reflected purity or very low presence of other woody species. In each plot, we selected  
244 the reference tree as the tree the closest to the plot centre and then we computed the MI value  
245 according to Eq. 1. This approach was used because of the low number of trees in the plot  
246 (4-5 trees) and to avoid border effects (i.e. selecting a reference tree which neighbours are  
247 located outside the plot). Height and diameter differentiation (HD and DD respectively)  
248 indices ( $T_{ij}$ ) were computed using Eq. 2. In each plot, a reference tree ( $i$ ) was randomly  
249 selected as well as its three nearest woody neighbours ( $j$ ).

250 
$$T_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n T_{ij}$$

251 
$$T_{ij} = 1 - \frac{\min(DBHi, DBHj)}{\max(DBHi, DBHj)} \quad \text{or} \quad T_{ij} = 1 - \frac{\min(Height_i, Height_j)}{\max(Height_i, Height_j)} \quad T_i \in [0, 1] \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

252 These equations were used for the three pairs of reference woody-neighbour species and the  
253  $T_{ij}$  indices were calculated as the mean of the three individual calculations. The higher value  
254 of the index (close to 1) show the higher diversity in terms of tree size. In addition, total  
255 canopy cover (TCC), basal area (BA), tree density and mean height of woody species were  
256 also recorded in each plot.

257

258

259 **Statistical analyses**

260 The plot was considered as the study unit. Different environmental and stand structural  
261 variables such as MI, HD, DD, TCC, BA, density of woody species, mean height of  
262 woody species (mean H), sand, silt, clay, bulk density, porosity, OC, Ntot, Pava, K, pH,  
263 EC, C/N were surveyed at plot level. Moreover, understory plant composition and shrubs  
264 and tree regeneration species were surveyed at plot scale. Differences between CWS and

265 HF were studied using a resemblance matrix (i.e. a symmetrical  $60 \times 60$  matrix containing  
266 the similarities between all pairs of samples) for environmental and stand structural  
267 variables (and two biological matrices: understory plant composition and shrubs and tree  
268 regeneration species). The resemblance is the general term in PRIMER software used to  
269 cover (dis)similarity or distance coefficients between all pairs of samples. All the  
270 variables of the environmental matrix were  $\log x+1$  transformed and the resemblance  
271 matrix was built using the Euclidean distance. The variables included in the biological  
272 matrixes were square root transformed and the resemblance matrix was built using the  
273 Bray Curtis distance. Then, an analysis of similarities (ANOSIM), described by Clarke  
274 (1993), was developed for the environmental and stand structural matrix in order to check  
275 differences among environmental variables for each type of forest management.  
276 ANOSIM routine was also used for checking differences among understory plant  
277 composition or shrub and tree regeneration species between each type (CWS vs HF).  
278 Secondly, environmental and stand structural variables were analyzed using non-metric  
279 Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS) and the Kruskal stress formula (minimum stress: 0.01)  
280 for visualizing the level of similarity of individual cases of each biological matrix  
281 (understory plant composition, shrubs and tree regeneration species). Thirdly, we applied  
282 the RELATE routine to check statistical significance of the relation between the  
283 environmental and stand structural and the two biological matrixes. Fourthly, the  
284 DIVERSE routine was used for calculating richness and different plant diversity indices  
285 (Margalef's richness, Pielou's evenness, Shannon and Simpson's diversity). A Spearman  
286 correlation analysis was finally made using environmental and stand structural variables,  
287 MDS1 and MDS2 of understory vegetation matrix and natural regeneration matrix and  
288 biodiversity indices. Statistical analyses were made using PRIMER V6 software (Clarke  
289 and Gorley, 2006; Anderson et al., 2008).

290

## 291 **RESULTS**

### 292 **Comparison of soil properties and stand structural features**

293 Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) of the matrices of the physical and chemical soil and  
294 stand structural features showed statistically significant differences between CWS and  
295 HF (Sample statistic (Global R): 0.98, Significance level of sample statistic: 0.1%). For  
296 soil properties, mean values of OC, Ntot, Pava, Kava, sand and porosity were significantly  
297 higher in HF than in CWS. In contrast, pH, EC, C/N, silt, clay and BD mean values were  
298 significantly higher in CWS than HF. For stand structural features, mean values of all

299 measured variables (except woody species density), i.e. MI, HD, DD, TCC, BA and  
300 height of woody species, were significantly higher in HF than in CWS (Table 1).

301

### 302 **Understory vegetation and regeneration composition**

303 Analysis of similarity of the understory plant composition matrix and of the tree  
304 regeneration species matrix showed statistically significant differences between CWS and  
305 HF (Sample statistics (Global R): 0.95 and 0.69 respectively, significance level of sample  
306 statistic: 0.1%). In accordance with the pairwise comparison among factors (Fig. 2 and  
307 3), the MDS analyses clearly separated the two forest systems when analyzing each  
308 biological matrix indicating that both CWS and HF significantly differed in terms of  
309 composition of the understory vegetation and composition of the regeneration in shrubs  
310 and trees.

311

312 After applying the RELATE routine, we found a statistical significant relationship  
313 between the measured variable matrix and both the understory plant composition and  
314 woody regeneration species matrixes. More precisely, the environmental and stand  
315 structural variables have a significant influence on understory plant diversity  
316 (significance level of sample statistic: 0.1 %, (Rho): 0.738) and on the composition of  
317 regeneration in woody species (Significance level of sample statistic: 0.1 %, (Rho):  
318 0.477). We found that the composition vegetation of HF and CWS plots were clearly  
319 distinct. The HF vegetation composition was associated with higher soil nutrients (Ntot,  
320 Pava and Kava), higher soil porosity, as well as higher values of the structural indices  
321 (MI, BA, DD and HD). In contrast, the vegetation composition of CWS reflected different  
322 soil parameters such as such as higher BD, EC, clay and silt values as well as a higher  
323 density of woody species (Fig 2).

324 Composition of the regeneration in woody species clearly separated along the first axis  
325 of the MDS axis1. More precisely, the vegetation composition in HF included *Quercus*  
326 *brantii*, *Acer monspessulanum*, *Crataegus azarolus*, *Pistacia atlantica*, *Amygdalus*  
327 *orientalis*, *Amygdalus scoparia* and *Amygdalus lycioides* and was found on more fertile  
328 soils. In contrast, vegetation composition of CWS was less diverse (only *Quercus brantii*,  
329 *Crataegus azarolus*, *Amygdalus scoparia* and *Amygdalus lycioides* ) and was associated  
330 with less fertile soils showing higher BD, EC, pH , clay, silt values and with stands with  
331 different structural indices (Fig 3).

332

333

334 **Regeneration density and diversity indices**

335 Results of the DIVERSE routine showed statistical differences of the understory  
336 vegetation and regeneration diversity indices between the two forest types: all values were  
337 higher in HF than in CWS (Table 2). Density of the woody regeneration was significantly  
338 higher in HF than in CWS whatever the species (Table 3). Total density was 1.19/m<sup>2</sup> in  
339 HF and only 0.43/m<sup>2</sup> all species together. This low density in CWS was explained by the  
340 absence of some woody species and a reduced density of the dominant oak species.

341

342

343 **Relationships between vegetation composition and environmental and stand**  
344 **structural variables**

345 According to the DISTLIM procedure, the best model for predicting understory plant  
346 composition using the environmental and stand structural variables is the model using  
347 solely the soil organic matter content ( $R^2=0.39$ ;  $AICc=431.49$ , Table 4). Similarly, the  
348 best model ( $R^2=0.44$ ;  $AICc=395.51$ ) for predicting the composition of the woody  
349 regeneration using the environmental and stand structural variables was a model  
350 including soil organic matter (OC), mean height (H) and the mean height differentiation  
351 index (HD)(Table 5). According to the Distance-based redundancy analysis (dbRDA)  
352 plots generated by the DISTLM procedure, the percentage of variation explained by axis  
353 1 was 99.5% out of the fitted model and 36.5% out of total variation in the case of the  
354 understory plant composition (Fig. 4). The model, clearly separated HF and CWS plots  
355 according to the OC parameter (Fig. 4). The dbRDA plot (Fig. 5) shows the distribution  
356 of the sampled plots of the two forest types (HF, CWS) according to the similarity of the  
357 composition of the woody regeneration in the factorial map defined by the two axes. The  
358 first axis explains 83.7% of the fitted model and 37.4% of the total variation whereas the  
359 second axis explains 15.6% and 6.9% of the fitted and total variation respectively. Plots  
360 of the two forest types are clearly separated along the first axis of the ordination plot  
361 which is correlated to the environmental and stand structural variables OC, mean H and  
362 HD.

363 Finally, the correlation values among the different environmental and stand structural  
364 variables, MDS1 and MDS2 of the plant diversity matrix, and woody regeneration and  
365 diversity indices matrices are shown Fig. 6. The multidimensional scaling axes generated

366 using the understory composition (MDS1\_Under) and natural regeneration (MDS1\_Reg)  
367 matrices are positively and significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) correlated with the stand structural  
368 indices (except for density), soil fertility (OC, N, P and K) and soil porosity but negatively  
369 correlated with soil physical properties (clay, silt and BD), pH, EC and C/N. In addition,  
370 we found positive correlations between all diversity indices and stand structural indices  
371 (Fig. 6).

372

373

374

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376

## 377 **DISCUSSION**

378

### 379 **Soil properties and stand structural features between the two oak forest types**

380 Our results highlighted differences not only in soil properties but also in forest structural  
381 features and plant diversity between our two forest types CWS (abandoned coppice with  
382 standards stands) and HF (high forests with low management intensity). Indeed, we found  
383 that the major soil nutrients (NPK), soil organic carbon, soil porosity were significantly  
384 higher in HF than in CWS whereas the bulk density (BD) was higher in CWS than in HF.  
385 Moreover, all stand descriptors and vegetation indices (except woody species density)  
386 including MI, HD, DD, TCC, BA and the mean height of the woody species were  
387 significantly higher in HF than CWS. Centuries of past management have shaped  
388 contrasted plant assemblages in the two forest types and more largely have influenced  
389 abiotic factors. It is known that plants directly modify the environment of other plants by  
390 competing for resources like water or light or by facilitative mechanisms such as  
391 amelioration of extreme temperatures or increasing resource availability such as nutrients  
392 (Caldeira et al., 2014). Moreover, trees and shrubs have indirect effects on soils through  
393 plant remains reaching the soil surface (in particular litter and root exudates) and nutrient  
394 uptake, which influence soil biogeochemical processes (Camping et al., 2002; Kooch et  
395 al., 2017; Eslaminejad et al., 2020). The higher structural and functional forest complexity  
396 found at HF seems to have enhanced litterfall inputs, increased nutrient content and soil  
397 organic matter accumulation on the forest floor (Lucas-Borja et al 2016), consequently  
398 favoring the nutrient and C cycling functions. Moreover, structural and functional forest  
399 complexity may significantly re-route vertical precipitation pathways by canopy

400 interception, throughfall and stemflow, hence clearly affecting the water regulation  
401 function (Lucas-Borja and Delgado-Baquerizo 2019). In addition, litter and dead forestry  
402 materials above the soil surface perform important ecological functions such as soil  
403 protection and nutrition and provide habitat for a large variety of organisms, ultimately  
404 contributing to soil fertility and accumulation of soil organic carbon with time (Sangha et  
405 al., 2006). Consistent with our results, Van Calster et al. (2007) showed that the  
406 conversion of coppices to high forests increased the number of species of the understory  
407 vegetation and of soil quality indicators such as nitrogen and soil moisture. Similarly,  
408 Heydari et al ( 2020), comparing high forests to coppice stands in western Iran, found  
409 higher amounts and more diverse inputs of litter in high forests which may generate  
410 higher quantity of nutrients favoring biomass and diversity of the soil microorganisms.  
411 In fact, high forests most often exhibited more diverse and denser woody species with  
412 thicker canopy favoring litter accumulation and flow of nutrients, explaining the more  
413 fertile soils in this type of forest (Callaway et al., 1991; Klemmedson, 1991; Heydari et  
414 al., 2020).

415 In contrast, in the more simple forest structures like coppices derived from traditional  
416 management, soil nutrients and organic matter accumulation are often reduced (e.g. Pyttel  
417 et al., 2015). This limited soil fertility can also be explained by the traditional coppice  
418 system including too frequent and too intense cuttings, which drastically reduce overstory  
419 cover and vegetal inputs reaching soil surface (Van Calster et al., 2008; Poeplau et al.,  
420 2011). Such activities can explain the increase of soil bulk density and porosity due to  
421 soil compaction, as well as the reduction of soil organic matter (Labelle and Jaeger, 2011;  
422 Cambi et al., 2015; Vacca et al., 2017). Moreover, the opening of the forest cover and the  
423 biomass removal in CWS have reduced the protective effect of the canopy and accelerated  
424 the topsoil erosion (Stott et al., 2001; Borrelli et al., 2017). It has also disrupted the input  
425 of organic matter (litter) (Noormets *et al.*, 2015) which is the main source of soil nutrients  
426 in our systems, reduced soil fertility and accelerated carbon losses (Mallik and Hu, 1997;  
427 Vacca et al., 2017).

428

#### 429 **Effect of forest systems on diversity and composition of plant species and** 430 **regeneration**

431 In this study, we showed that the forest type (CWS or HF) resulting from contrasted  
432 management systems, has a profound influence on vegetation diversity and composition  
433 of the overstory, and on the structural characteristics of the stands such as density,

434 diameter, height and canopy. Similar results were also found in temperate forests, in  
435 particular after conversion from coppices to high forests, but was more rarely described  
436 in semi-arid forests. For instance, Scolastri et al. (2017) showed that the structural  
437 characteristics of beech forest stands were significantly affected by silvicultural  
438 management and the gradual change of coppices to high forests. Our results indicated that  
439 the values of the Shannon diversity indices applied to the forest structure (i.e. using DBH  
440 classes, basal area, mean height) were higher in HF than in CWS, while the tree density  
441 was the highest in CWS due to the great number of sprouts in this system. This high  
442 density in CWS favored the stems' competition for light and space, and over time leads  
443 to a more uniform vertical structure of the CWS compared to HF (Fabbio et al., 2006).  
444 Such changes illustrate that human disturbances linked to a forest management system  
445 such as coppicing can deeply modify the horizontal and vertical structure of the forest as  
446 shown by many previous studies (Kirby et al., 1991; Cierjacks and Hensen, 2004;  
447 Bruckman et al., 2016; Manetti et al., 2020). This modification of the forest structure then  
448 plays a key role in the change of the forest microclimate, soil properties and more largely  
449 the future of the forest (Heydari et al., 2017 b; Košulič et al., 2016).

450 We also showed that the composition, the diversity and richness of the understory  
451 vegetation including the regeneration in woody species were significantly higher in HF  
452 than in CWS. Such differences between the two systems can be explained by the  
453 modification of both the below-ground (soil properties) and the above-ground resources  
454 due to change in the forest structure. Forest management involves a set of human activities  
455 and disturbances (Van der Maarel 1993; Kulakowski et al., 2017) and is a key factor  
456 affecting the environmental factors controlling changes in plant diversity. For example in  
457 our study, thinning and frequent cuttings in CWS has increased light availability (Ford  
458 and Newbould 1977; Strubelt et al., 2019) and access to soil water and nutrients (Parsons,  
459 Knight and Miller 1994). This has favored the competitive exclusion between species and  
460 has decreased species diversity (Wilson and Tilman 1993). Because different forest  
461 management systems may simultaneously modulate access to different sources such as  
462 light and soil nutrients, their effects on biodiversity vary from region to region and  
463 according to the type of vegetation. For instance, some plant groups such as graminoids  
464 respond more to management operations such as coppicing: their richness and abundance  
465 can increase after exploitation operations due to the colonizing capacity of several  
466 heliophilous species (Roberts and Zhu 2002; Decocq et al., 2004). Light regime is indeed  
467 an important factor in changing the species composition and diversity and the greater light

468 availability after coppicing can efficiently limit the abundance of shade-tolerant species  
469 but facilitate the development of light-demanding species (Vild et al., 2013). The higher  
470 diversity and species richness in HF compared to CWS can also be related to the more  
471 stable canopy conditions in HF over time, i.e. more stable microclimate conditions in the  
472 forest floor favorable to shade-tolerant and vernal species (Durak 2012). Similarly,  
473 Scolastrri et al. (2017) stated that HF stands can offer a wide range of light conditions that  
474 support a high plant diversity from strictly shade-tolerant to semi-heliophilous species.  
475 The higher diversity and density of woody species in the regeneration of HF can be related  
476 to the greater diversity of the overstory in woody species which can provide diverse seeds  
477 and offer suitable microhabitats for the seedlings. In contrast, the larger canopy opening  
478 in CWS, the simplification of the forest structure as well as the reduced soil fertility, are  
479 less favorable for the successful establishment of woody species regeneration (Heydari et  
480 al., 2017 a).

481

## 482 **CONCLUSION**

483 We compared abandoned coppice with standards stands (CWS) and high forest stands  
484 (HF) to understand whether past forest management system can have effects on the forest  
485 stand structural features, soil properties and plant diversity, and if so, in what way. Our  
486 findings highlighted not only which system has the higher soil nutrient content, soil  
487 organic matter, species richness or diversity, but also which was able to preserve the most  
488 typical understory species of the oak semiarid forest. HF offered more stable  
489 microclimatic conditions over time leading to a higher soil quality and a more diverse  
490 ecosystem than CWS. Our results provide the first insights for supporting the conversion  
491 of CWS to HF to improve species diversity and soil fertility and maintaining more stable  
492 conditions in semi-arid oak forests. In the harsh site conditions of oak forests in western  
493 Iran, the more conservative management in HF stands submitted to less frequent cuttings  
494 and subsequent disturbances than in the traditional coppicing system was more favorable  
495 for the protection of soil and vegetation diversity. This legacy of forest management is  
496 still noticeable in the forest composition, structure and soil properties after a long period  
497 of abandonment.

498

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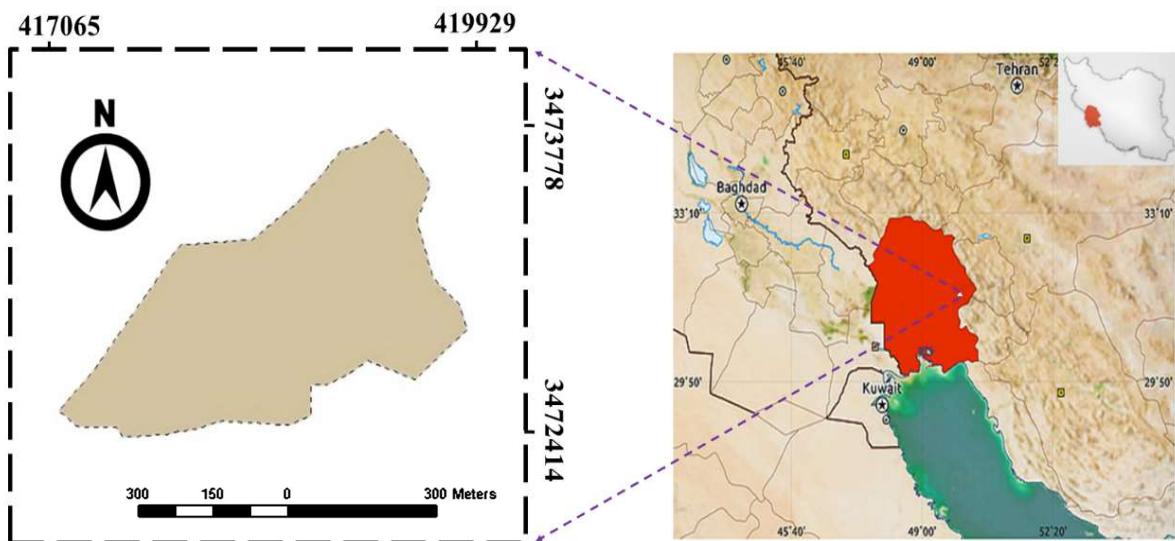
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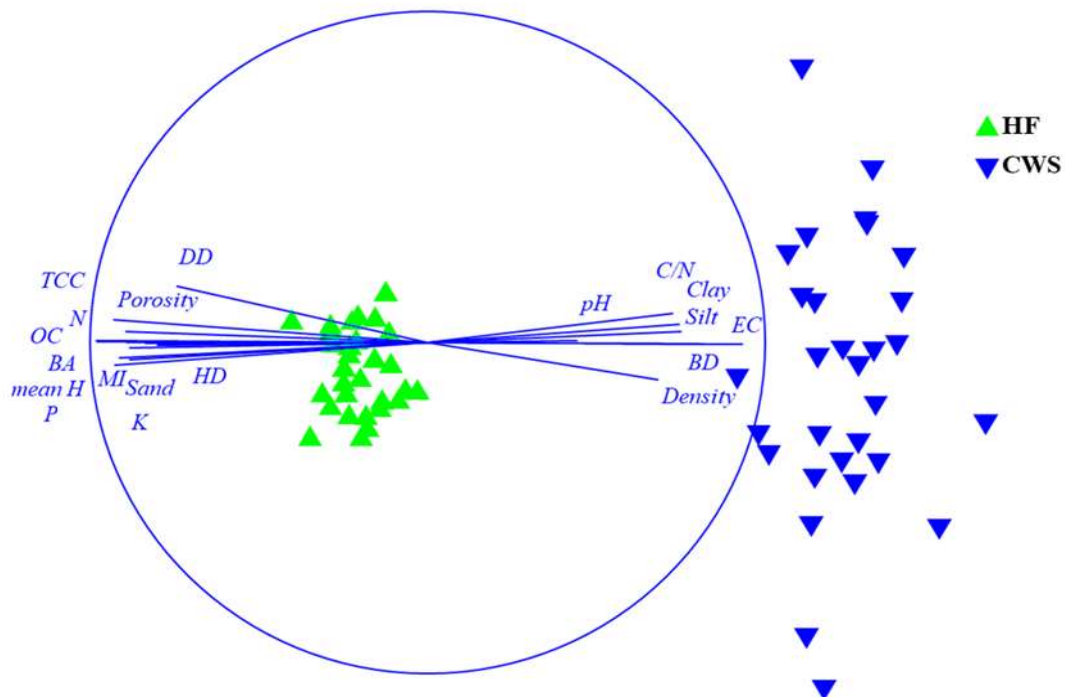
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**Figure 1.** Location of study area in south-western Iran

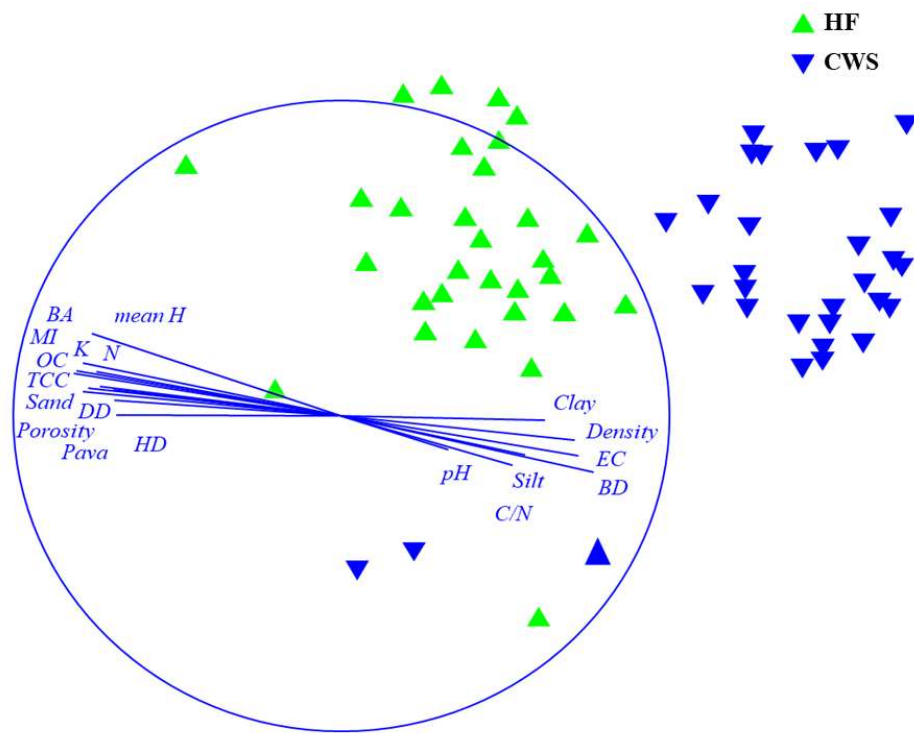
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800 **Figure 2.** Ordination by multidimensional scaling (MDS) of understory vegetation  
801 composition (HF and CWS) showing the environmental and stand structural vectors  
802 proportional to the strength of the correlation with the axes. TCC: total canopy cover, BA:  
803 basal area, HD: Height differentiation, DD: diameter differentiation, MI: mingling index,  
804 Density: tree density; mean H: mean height of woody species, P: available phosphorus,  
805 K: available potassium, OC: organic carbon, EC: electrical conductivity, N: total  
806 nitrogen, C/N: carbon/nitrogen, BD: bulk density.

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811 **Figure 3.** MDS showing the composition of the regeneration in woody species (HF and

812 CWS) and the environmental and stand structural variables.

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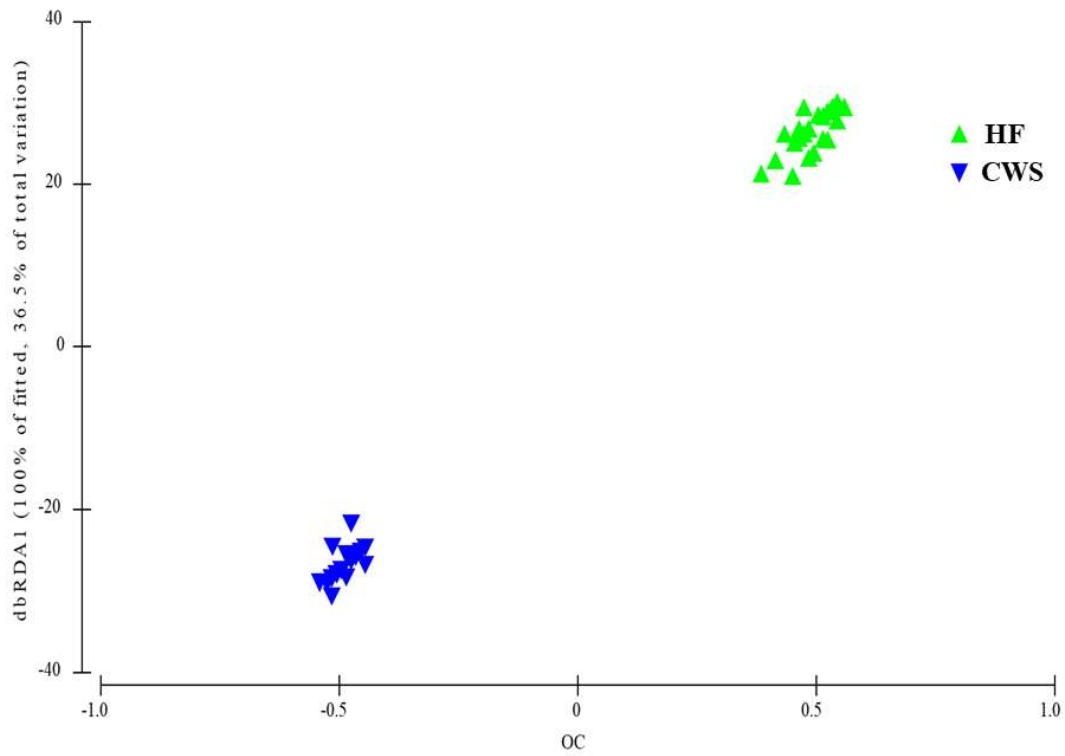
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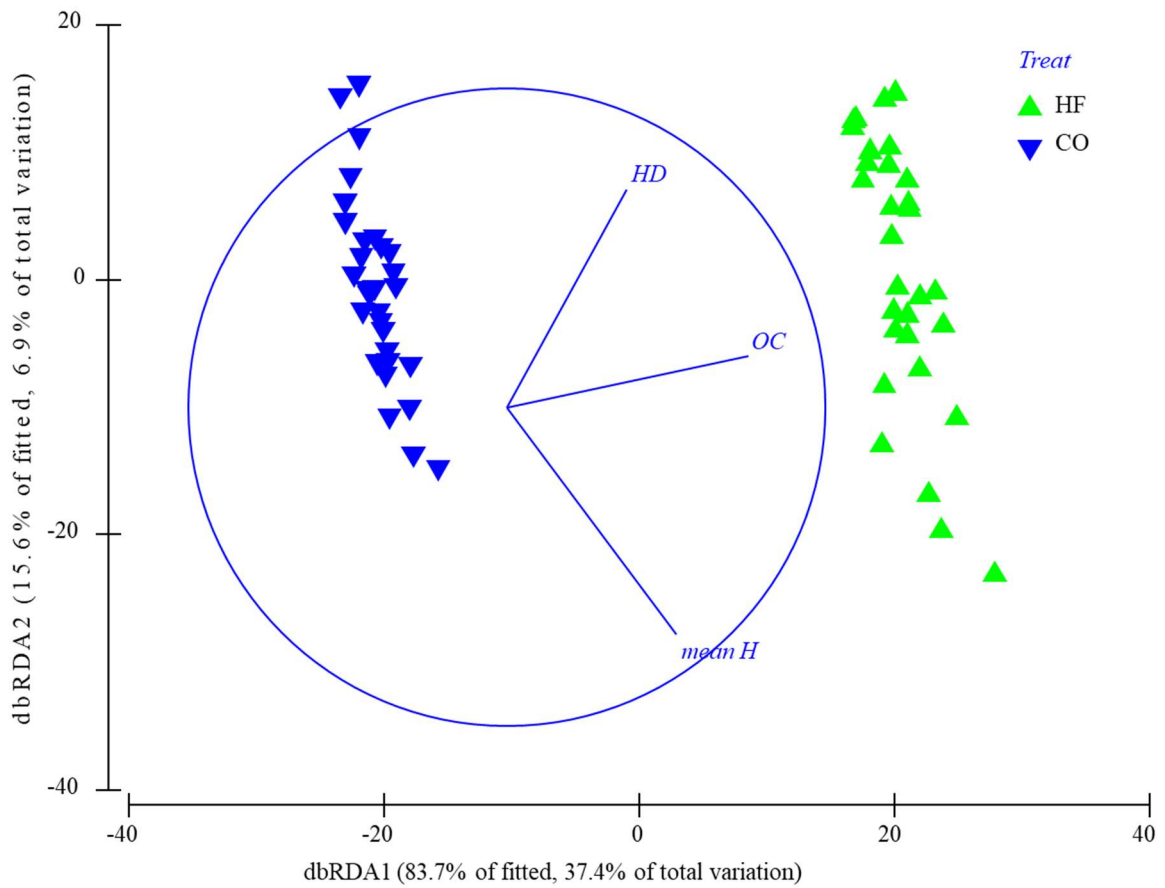


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829 **Figure 4.** Distance-based redundancy analysis (DbRDA) plot for understory vegetation  
830 composition showing the distribution of the plots of the two systems (HF, CWS)  
831 according to the normalized value of the soil organic carbon (OC).

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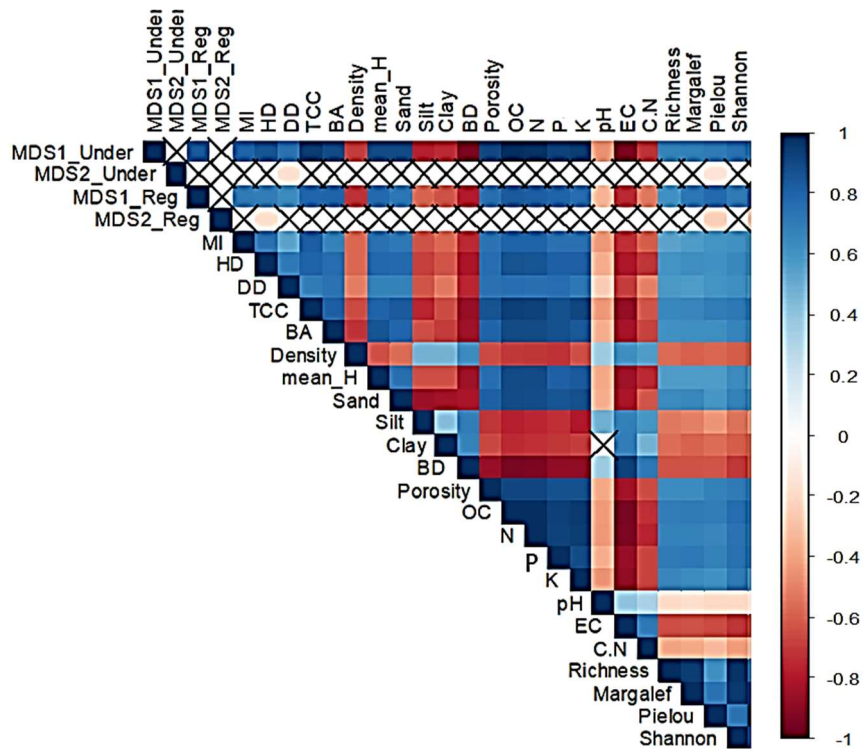
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836 **Figure 5.** DbRDA ordination plot for composition of the woody regeneration. The  
 837 environmental and stand structural vectors are indicated in the factorial map as follows:  
 838 mean H (mean height of woody species); OC (soil organic carbon) and HD (height  
 839 differentiation index).

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843 **Figure 6.** Map of the correlations among the environmental and stand structural  
 844 variables, the MDS1 and MDS2 of the plant diversity matrix and of the woody  
 845 regeneration and biodiversity indices matrices. TCC: total canopy cover, BA: basal area,  
 846 HD: Height differentiation, DD: diameter differentiation, MI: mingling index, Density:  
 847 tree density; mean H: mean height of woody species, P: available phosphorus, K:  
 848 available potassium, OC: organic carbon, EC: electrical conductivity, N: total nitrogen,  
 849 C/N: carbon/nitrogen, BD: bulk density.

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860 **Table 1.** Comparison of mean ( $\pm$  standard error) soil properties and stand structural  
 861 features between high forest (HF) and coppice-with-standards (CWS).

	<b>Variables</b>	<b>HF</b>	<b>CWS</b>	<b>t-value</b>
<b>Soil properties</b>	OC (%)	2.58 (0.007)	1.61 (0.004)	112.90***
	Ntot (%)	0.28 (0.001)	0.15 (0.002)	68.94***
	Pava (ppm)	22.82 (0.344)	15.47 (0.129)	19.97***
	Kava (ppm)	314.17 (0.604)	289.93 (0.818)	23.83***
	pH	7.31 (0.006)	7.39 (0.022)	-3.74***
	EC (ds.m-1)	0.36 (0.005)	0.49 (0.003)	-22.74***
	C/N	9.46 (0.103)	10.76 (0.114)	-8.46***
	Sand (%)	41.87 (0.164)	31.23 (0.689)	15.01***
	Silt (%)	29.00 (0.179)	34.63 (0.584)	-9.22***
	Clay (%)	29.13 (0.133)	34.13 (0.587)	-8.31***
	BD (g m <sup>-3</sup> )	1.29 (0.004)	1.39 (0.002)	-21.69***
Porosity (%)	51.50 (0.215)	47.66 (0.056)	17.31***	
<b>Stand structural</b>	MI	0.73 (0.004)	0.13 (0.002)	10.75***
	HD	0.66 (0.002)	0.33 (0.001)	13.03***
	DD	0.64 (0.024)	0.34 (0.021)	9.14***
	TCC (m <sup>2</sup> )	234.26 (4.875)	117.32 (2.802)	20.79***
	BA (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	11.73 (0.350)	5.69 (0.160)	15.67***
	Density (N ha <sup>-1</sup> )	274.07 (4.823)	338.97 (7.074)	-7.58***
	Mean Height of woody species (m)	2.77 (0.053)	1.68 (0.044)	15.73***

862 \*\*\* **p < 0.001**

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881 **Table 2.** Mean values ( $\pm$  standard error) of the diversity indices of the understory  
 882 vegetation and woody regeneration in each forest type.

<b>Vegetation</b>			
<b>Diversity indices</b>	<b>HF</b>	<b>CWS</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Margalef's richness	2.3(0.1)	1.4(0.1)	<0.001**
Shannon's diversity	1.5(0.05)	0.9(0.05)	<0.001**
Simpson's diversity	0.9(0.02)	0.7(0.02)	<0.001**
Pielou's evenness	0.9(0.01)	0.8(0.01)	<0.001**
<b>Regeneration</b>			
<b>Diversity indices</b>	<b>HF</b>	<b>CWS</b>	<b>P-value</b>
Margalef's richness	1.16(0.08)	0.62(0.12)	0.001**
Shannon's diversity	0.88(0.06)	0.40(0.07)	<0.001**
Simpson's diversity	0.45(0.02)	0.26(0.05)	<0.001**
Pielou's evenness	0.67(0.02)	0.47(0.08)	0.03*

883 (\*\*P < 0.01; \*P < 0.05)

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905 **Table 3.** Mean density values (and standard error) (No. in 100 m<sup>2</sup>) of the regeneration of  
 906 the woody species in both forest types.

<b>Species</b>	<b>HF</b>	<b>CWS</b>	<b>P-value</b>
<i>Quercus brantii</i>	8.32 (0.58)	4.1 (0.42)	<0.001**
<i>Pistacia atlantica</i>	0.51 (0.11)	0 (0)	<0.001**
<i>Acer monspessulanum</i>	0.46 (0.11)	0 (0)	<0.001**
<i>Crataegus azarolus</i>	1.00 (0.15)	0.53(0.10)	<0.001**
<i>Amygdalus orientalis</i>	0.30 (0.08)	0(0)	<0.001**
<i>Amygdalus scoparia</i>	0.60 (0.12)	0.46(0.10)	<0.001**
<i>Amygdalus lycioides</i>	0.66 (0.12)	0.23 (0.09)	<0.001**
All species	11.90 (0.68)	4.26 (0.34)	<0.001**

907 (\*\*P < 0.01)

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929 **Table 4.** Best DistLM model for predicting understorey plant diversity using all  
 930 environmental and stand structural variables ( $R^2=0.39$ ).

<b>Variable</b>	<b>AICc</b>	<b>Pseudo-F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Prop.</b>	<b>Cumul.</b>	<b>res.df</b>
+OC	431.49	33.301	0.001	0.36474	0.36474	58

931 OC: organic carbon

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933 **Table 5.** Best DistLM models for predicting the composition of the woody regeneration  
 934 using the environmental and stand structural variables. ( $R^2=0.44$ ).

<b>Variable</b>	<b>AICc</b>	<b>Pseudo-F</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Prop.</b>	<b>Cumul.</b>	<b>res.df</b>
+OC	398.6	34.235	0.001	0.37117	0.37117	58
+mean H	396.65	4.107	0.011	4.23E-02	0.41343	57
+HD	395.51	3.2981	0.03	3.26E-02	0.44606	56

935 OC: organic carbon, mean H: mean height of woody species, HD: height differentiation  
 936 index

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