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INTEGRATING STAKEHOLDERS' DEMANDS AND SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE ON ECOSYSTEM SERVICES IN LANDSCAPE PLANNING

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Date of the manuscript draft: January 15, 2014

Manuscript word count (including text, references, tables, and captions): 6,697

Abstract

The conflict between conservation and timber production is shifting in regions such as Biscay (Basque Country, northern Spain) where planted forests are no longer profitable without public subsidies and environmentalists claim that public subsidies should be reoriented to the regeneration of natural forest. This paper develops an approach that integrates scientific knowledge and stakeholders' demands to provide decision-making guidelines for the development of new landscape planning strategies while considering ecosystem services. First, a participatory process was conducted to develop a community vision for the region's sustainable future considering the opportunities and constraints provided by the landscape and its ecosystems. In the participatory process forest management was considered an important driver for the region's landscape development and forest multi-functionality was envisioned as a feasible attractive alternative. The participatory process identified a knowledge gap on the synergies and trade-offs between biodiversity and carbon storage and how these depend on different forest types. Second, to study the existing synergies and trade-offs between biodiversity and carbon storage and disentangle the identified knowledge gap, a GIS-based research was conducted based on spatially explicit indicators. Our spatial analysis results showed that natural forests' contribution to biodiversity and carbon storage is higher than that of the plantations with exotic species in the region. The results from the spatial analysis converged with those from the participatory process in the suitability of promoting, where possible and appropriate, natural forest ecosystems restoration. This iterative learning and decision making process is already showing its effectiveness for decision making, with concrete examples of how the results obtained with the applied approach are being included in planning and decision-making processes.

Key words: Ecosystem services, stakeholder participation, spatial explicit indicators, biodiversity, carbon storage, landscape multi-functionality, forest sustainable management

Introduction

30 Nowadays, there is a growing need to develop methods for a more integrated and
adaptative governance, mainly to provide a better response to the demands of society while
minimizing the cost that fulfilling these demands may cause to other services essential for
human well-being, such as wood, genetic resources or fresh water (Mooney et al. 2005).
Within this context, the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment explored the link between
35 human well-being, the status of ecosystems and their sustainable use (MA 2005). This
relevant assessment aimed to provide policy-makers with scientific information on the
consequences of ecosystem changes for ecosystem services (ES) and human well-being
(MA 2005). In fact, since the MA started, scientific, political and social concern on
ecosystem services has risen significantly, e.g., the Intergovernmental Science-Policy
40 Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) and the targets of the
Convention of Biological Diversity (CBD) for the year 2020. Despite the increasing
scientific and political attention on ES, there is a lack of approach to include this concept in
the land use management strategies at landscape scale.

In the last century, many regions have intensified forestry and agriculture practices
45 prioritizing the short-term economic benefits of the land owners. However, the importance
of landscapes to maintain biodiversity while fulfilling multiple ES such as timber and food
production, water flow regulation or carbon storage is being increasingly recognized (FAO
2003, Otte et al. 2007) and the multi-functionality of landscapes is seen as an opportunity to
converge with conservation planning while improving production abilities and ecological
50 functions (Reyers et al. 2012). Due to the existing synergies and trade-offs between
different services (Dymond et al. 2012; Hauck et al. 2012; Onaindia et al. 2013a; Gamfeldt
et al. 2013) as well as to the different demands of stakeholders, not all ES can be prioritised

simultaneously in a region. Thus, compromises in landscape management have to be adopted (Horner et al. 2010). In that decision process social-ecological issues should be considered for a widespread implementation of ES in practical planning and decision-making. In order to do that, a clear understanding of the ecological environment as well as the inclusion of different stakeholders' interests is required (Onaindia et al. 2013a; Thompson et al. 2012).

In regions such as Biscay, northern Spain, fast growing exotic species (e.g., *Pinus radiata* and *Eucalyptus* sp.) forest plantation has expanded since the 1950's (Rodríguez-Loinaz et al. 2011) covering nowadays 43% of the area, while natural forests remnants are sparse and fragmented, covering only 13%. In the last decade, there has been increasing concern regarding potential negative environmental impacts of those monoculture plantations such as soil loss and compaction, nutrient loss and surface water turbidity (Rodríguez-Loinaz et al. 2013). As a result, landscape management has generated controversy between stakeholders. Landowners favour the pine and eucalyptus plantations trying to maximise their economic benefits, whereas environmentalists bet on the regeneration of natural forests. Currently, nature managers find themselves in a situation where this potential conflict between conservation and timber production is confronting new realities and therefore new decisions need to be made. Moreover, due to the globalisation of the timber market and other factors, forest plantations in the area are no longer as profitable as they used to be, e.g., the value of timber production fell by 80% between 2005 and 2011 (Basque Government 2011), and their subsistence depends heavily on public subsidies (Rodríguez-Loinaz et al. 2013). As a consequence, carbon incentives have become an opportunity for land owners to maintain the profitability of these plantations. In light of these changes, new strategies of land management based on social

demands and scientific knowledge are needed to create landscapes that are sustainable in the long term, considering the six sustainability dimensions proposed by Musacchio (2009) at the landscape scale (namely those concerning environment, economic, equity, aesthetics, experience, and ethics) and understanding the idea of a ‘sustainable landscape’ in terms of the way it functions, and whether that functionality is sufficient to maintain the output of services that people need or value (Potschin and Haines- Young 2011).

Within this context, this work attempts to develop an approach that integrates scientific knowledge and stakeholders’ demands to provide decision-making guidelines for the development of new strategies for land and forest management towards a more sustainable landscape. In doing so, we expect to further develop the understanding of how ES information can be integrated in planning and decision-making. The proposed approach consist of a two-step process: 1) a participatory process with local stakeholders to develop a community vision for the region’s sustainable future considering the opportunities and constrains provided by the landscape and its ecosystems, as well as to identify key drivers and research needs; and 2) a scientific research to address the lack of knowledge that is needed to design, implement and regulate effective policies.

Methodology

Study area

This study was carried out in the county of Biscay (2213 km²; 1.2 million inhabitants), located in the north of the Iberian Peninsula (43° 46’ to 42° 92’ N, 03° 45’ to 02° 40’ W) (Fig. 1). The region has a mountainous topography: in half of the territory there are slopes greater than 30%, and the altitude varies from 0 to 1500 m above sea level. The climate is temperate and humid, being regulated by the Cantabrian Sea. The principal characteristics

of this climate are its slight thermal oscillations (average temperature 12.5 °C), uniform rainfall distribution throughout the year (average annual rainfall 1,200 mm), and a relative lack of frost.

105 Currently, more than half of the surface of Biscay (56%) is dominated by forest, mainly by exotic plantations (*Pinus radiata* and *Eucalyptus* sp., 39% and 4% of the area, respectively). The main natural forest types in Biscay are Cantabrian evergreen-oak forests (*Quercus ilex*), mixed oak forests (*Quercus robur*) and beech forests (*Fagus sylvatica*). These forests represent the potential vegetation of approximately 80% of the region, but currently they only cover 13% of the area (Basque Government 2009; Fig. 1).

110

#Figure 1 approximately here#

Participatory process

115 The participatory process used here consisted of combining different participative methods (Pereira et al. 2005; Patel et al. 2007; Palomo et al. 2011), namely a structured questionnaire and a workshop held after a stakeholder selection process (Palacios-Agundez et al. 2013). The structured questionnaire was designed to identify the key drivers of change and the potential for successful intervention, which were analyzed later in the workshop. The questionnaire was sent by mail to 285 local stakeholders a month before the workshop
120 was implemented. Stakeholder selection is crucial for the outcome of any participatory process (Kok et al. 2007). We therefore selected a wide variety of stakeholders including the four groups that others studies about participatory processes suggested that should be represented: policy makers, business representatives, citizens, and experts (van Asselt and Rijkens-Klomp 2002).

125 The workshop was held on 17th and 18th of June 2010, for approximately eight
hours each day. In the workshop, the participants were divided into 4 heterogeneous groups
of approximately 10 participants including at least one representative of the research group
and an experienced local facilitator in each group. Participants first discussed the key
drivers of change in the Biscay social-ecological system and later in a plenary session
130 developed a list of the most relevant ones. Once the main drivers of change were identified,
four possible future scenario outcomes were described and characterized in terms of the
provision of ES and human well-being. Identifying the desirable and undesirable outcomes,
participants described a sustainable target scenario for Biscay with the time horizon set on
2050, and planned how it could be achieved by defining management strategies and
135 identifying research needs (Quist and Vergragt 2006) (see Palacios-Agundez et al. 2013 for
further detail).

Scientific research: spatial analysis

We designed a GIS-based approach for mapping and quantifying biodiversity and carbon
140 storage based on spatially explicit indicators to study the existing synergies and trade-offs
between both on forest ecosystems. The software used for the geoprocessing was ArcGIS
9.3 (ESRI 2009). The forest system units were defined using the Habitats EUNIS map of
the Basque Country in a scale of 1:10,000 (Basque Government 2009), which has been
created using EUNIS level 4 or beyond for forest systems (EEA 2002). For this study, the
145 54 forest habitats in the area were aggregated into: (1) natural forests including mixed oak
forest, Cantabrian green oak forest and beech forest as well as (2) forest plantations
including conifer and eucalyptus plantations (Fig. 1).

Biodiversity was mapped and quantified using three spatially explicit indicators: native plant species richness, vertebrate species richness and threatened animal species richness. The native plant species richness was measured as the total number of native plant species in each forest type, and was calculated based on the literature from the study area (Onaindia et al. 2013a) (Table 1). The vertebrate species richness was obtained from the National Biodiversity Inventory database (10x10 km UTM grid cells) of the Spanish Ministry on Agriculture, Food and Environment (MAAMA 2008). The threatened animal species richness was extracted from the threatened animal species in the Basque Country distribution map in 10x10 km UTM grid cells (Basque Government 2012).

#Table 1 approximately here#

For carbon storage, we mapped the amount of carbon stored in living trees and soil in the forest systems. For the valuation of C stored in the soil, we used the “Inventory of organic C stored in the first 30 cm of the soil” of the Basque Country (Neiker-Ihobe 2004). This map was obtained by means of interpolation techniques from more than a thousand samples of organic C concentrations (g kg^{-1}) and soil bulk density (g cm^{-3}) after combining the samples according to land uses (e.g., coniferous forest, broadleaf forest, grasslands and scrublands). The C stored in living trees was obtained as follows (IPCC 2003):

$$CB = V * BEF * (1+R) * D * CF$$

where CB is the carbon stocks in living biomass (includes above- and belowground biomass), tonnes C ha^{-1} ; V is the merchantable volume, $\text{m}^3 \text{ha}^{-1}$; BEF is the biomass

expansion factor for each species, without units; R is the root-to-shoot ratio to include
belowground tree biomass, without units; D is the basic wood density, tonnes of dry matter
 dm m^{-3} merchantable volume; and CF is the carbon fraction of dry matter, tonnes C (tonne
175 $\text{dm})^{-1}$. The merchantable volume data for the different forests was obtained from the Forest
Inventory in 1:10,000 scale of the Basque Country for the year 2011 (Basque Government
2013). The wood densities were obtained from the forests of the northern Iberian Peninsula
(CPF 2004; Madrigal et al. 1999), and the biomass expansion factors were obtained from
the study region (Montero et al. 2005). Finally, we created a total carbon storage map by
combining the maps of C stored in soil and living trees.

180 In order to detect spatial synergies and trade-offs between carbon storage and
biodiversity, we calculated the differences in carbon storage per hectare and natural plant
species richness between native forest and plantations using t-tests. To analyze the effect of
forest type on animal diversity we calculated the proportion of forest system units in each
10 km^2 grid cell. Then, relationships between animal richness (expressed as the number of
185 threatened animal species and as the number of vertebrate species) and forest types were
modelled using General Linear Models (GLM). The log-link function and a Poisson error
distribution were used for richness variables (Crawley 2007). All values are reported as the
mean \pm standard error of the main factors, and the magnitude of the effects was calculated
as the estimated difference from the intercept. All statistical analyses were implemented in
190 the R software environment (version 2.15.2; R Core Team 2012).

Results

Participatory process

A total of 66 stakeholders took part in the participatory process. The workshop participants
195 included public-administration technicians and policymakers, researchers and local experts
from different backgrounds, members of environmental associations, environmental
education professionals, and representatives from the agriculture and the forestry sectors.
Participants identified forest management as one of the most important drivers of change in
the Biscay landscape (Table 1). They considered that a change is necessary in the existing
200 timber production model in Biscay due to its current lack of profitability. Moreover, the
majority highlighted the need to go beyond the merely timber production goals towards
promoting structural and functional diversity in forest systems. They also considered that
sustainable forest management should ensure ES supply, and many of them perceived
natural forests as important providers of ES (Table 1). In fact, a key point in the sustainable
205 target scenario chosen by participants was landscape multi-functionality. In this scenario, it
was considered that apart from timber production to maintain the landowners' economic
benefits, other ES should be promoted, mainly biodiversity and carbon storage, to
maximise the benefits for society. Participants proposed the recovery of natural forest in
sites that are not necessarily meant for commercial purposes (e.g., public lands) as well as
210 the diversification of tree species in forest plantations, expanding to new markets and
maximising both benefits, societal and economical. To achieve this scenario, participants
identified the need for a strategic landscape planning and management (Table 1), and
requested more scientific knowledge on the synergies and trade-offs among ecosystem
services, biodiversity and carbon storage, in order to inform and implement sustainable
215 forest management.

#Table 1 approximately here#

Scientific research: spatial analysis

220 Carbon storage in plantations ranged from on average 139 tC ha⁻¹ in coniferous to 220 tC
ha⁻¹ in eucalyptus plantations (Table 2). In contrast, in natural forests carbon storage
ranged from 151 tC ha⁻¹ in Cantabrian green oak to 212 tC ha⁻¹ in beech forests. Overall,
natural forests held more carbon than plantations (t-value = 2.43, p-value = 0.023), being
187 tC ha⁻¹ the total mean carbon storage in natural forests and 140 tC ha⁻¹ in plantations
225 (Table 2). Native plant species richness per forest type ranged from 30 in eucalyptus
plantation to 79 in mixed oak forest (Table 2), and was significantly higher in natural
forests than in forests plantations (77 ± 3.79 vs. 54 ± 21.92 ; z-value = 7.29, p-value =
0.003).

230 #Table 2 approximately here#

The GLM results showed that both biodiversity indicators (i.e., threatened animal
species richness and vertebrate species richness) were significantly positively related with
the area of natural forests (Table 3a); indicating that grid cells with greater natural forest
235 areas preserve more vertebrate and threatened animals species richness. Regarding
differences among forest types (Table 3b), although there is only a significant positive
relationship between vertebrate species richness and beech forest area (Table 3b), species
richness of threatened animal species was significantly positively related to beech forest
and Cantabrian green oak forest areas (Table 3b). On the contrary, threatened animal

240 species and vertebrate species richness showed no significant relationship with coniferous
and eucalyptus plantations (Table 3b), and forest plantations showed a non-significant
negative relationship (Table 3a).

#Table 3 approximately here#

245

Discussion

The cooperation between scientists and stakeholders

The traditional role of scientists as informants to policy-makers on technical advice is
changing. The role of stakeholders is more and more recognised and many scientists
250 consider that useful scientific knowledge emerges from the cooperation of scientists and
practitioners (Beunen and Opdam 2011). Process-based decision models facilitate better
modelling of human decisions in natural systems (An and López-Carr 2012). However,
regional and local actors groups involved in the landscape planning usually make
insufficient use of scientific knowledge of the ecological system that is being changed
255 (Opdam et al. 2008). To fill this gap, scientists can contribute to conflict management by
providing objective information and helping to justify management plans and actions
(McCool et al. 2007).

In our study area, conservationists and land owners have opposing views about
biodiversity conservation plans and current timber production strategies. Besides, planted
260 forests are no longer profitable without public subsidies and landowners perceive carbon
storage as a market opportunity. Consequently, the participatory process showed that a
wider understanding on the forest ES and on the synergies and trade-offs between
biodiversity and carbon storage is required. Solid scientific knowledge was therefore

demanded as a decision-making tool that would provide added value to the overall
265 knowledge co-generation process and would help towards multi-sector consensus on land
use policies. In fact, identifying such synergies and trade-offs enables users of forest
ecosystems to understand and balance the pros and cons of different management scenarios
(Gamfeldt et al. 2013).

A key element for the success of the approach used here was the stakeholders'
270 engagement from the start in an iterative learning and decision making process. This
collaborative process resulted in the willingness to search for the most appropriate and
sustainable response options considering the local socio-economic conditions as well as the
opportunities and constrains provided by the landscape and its ecosystems. The
participatory process therefore identified the knowledge gap and guided the directions for
275 future research. Interestingly, the added value of the scientific knowledge was recognised
for promoting landscape planning towards the sustainable target scenario described by
participants.

In this process it was also crucial to incorporate the conceptual framework of
ecosystem services, because this allowed participants to better understand the different
280 potential benefits of ecosystems (Hauck et al. 2013) and showed where potential conflict
areas and opportunities were located. During the process, all participants learned from each
other and became able to better understand different points of view. This was particularly
relevant for those actors who initiate, promote, implement or are affected by land
management changes. However, several aspects of the forest management issue (e.g., the
285 role of forest plantations and natural forest for the carbon storage ecosystem service)
remained uncertain and multi-functionality of forests was identified as a key aspect where a

broader agreement was needed, as many landowners defend monoculture plantations and are reluctant to change their current timber production strategies.

Another key issue was the use of spatially explicit information. The application of scientific knowledge to landscape planning at the local level requires site-specific interpretations that may be addressed with a high level of spatial detail. While science aims for generic and universal rules, the validity of such generalities is limited at the local level, and problem solving requires a reinterpretation of generic rules in the local context (Beunen and Opdam 2011). While general technical guidance for environmental planning can be useful at the state level, it can be less useful at the local scale (Azerrad and Nilon, 2006). In the study area, the outputs generated in the form of maps showing where the conflict areas and opportunities were located, helped managers explore solutions and generate new knowledge. The scientific information was considered of great interest by stakeholders for both consensus building and problem solving, even though other studies have observed a more sceptical attitude towards scientific knowledge (Beunen and Opdam 2011).

Trade-offs between carbon storage and biodiversity

The identification of knowledge gaps during the participatory process was followed by an analysis of spatially explicit indicators to disentangle the synergies and trade-offs between biodiversity and carbon storage on forest ecosystems. Here, the results showed that natural forest area had positive effects on both carbon storage and biodiversity. First, the mean carbon storage per hectare in natural forest was greater than in forest plantations. These results are in agreement with Rodríguez-Loinaz et al. (2013), who demonstrated that substituting existing exotic plantations by native species plantations or natural woodlands has a great potential for increasing carbon sequestration in the same region. Second, native

plant species richness was slightly greater in natural forests than in forest plantations. Further, the positive relationship between natural forest area and species richness of vertebrate and threatened animal species suggests that natural forest, especially beech and Cantabrian green oak forest, are important spots to preserve vertebrate diversity and the threatened animal species. These results are in agreement with Onaindia & Michelena (2009) who, in the same region, found that the total number of species in the understory vegetation was higher in natural forests than in pine plantations. According to these results, the natural forest restoration might be a valid option for carbon storage and biodiversity conservation in this region, especially considering degraded sites or areas where forest plantations are not highly profitable (Onaindia et al. 2013b). Similarly, recent studies in regions such as Costa Rica, Vietnam, Chile and Ecuador showed that landscapes experiencing increases in natural forest also experienced an increase in the potential to support native floristic biodiversity, as well as an increase in the carbon stored above and below ground (Hall et al. 2012). The conservation of natural forests is essential for biodiversity conservation (Kessler et al. 2012); however, natural forests are fragmented and sparse in Biscay being one of the main drawbacks for their preservation. As a consequence, the restoration actions should focus on increasing natural forest area as well as on the inter-connectivity of existing natural forest patches.

The lack of knowledge identified during the participatory process was complemented by scientific approaches using spatially explicit analyses. On this basis, solutions for carbon sequestration and biodiversity conservation are possible while natural forest interconnectivity is increased, favouring landscape multi-functionality. This might be achieved using management plans based on sound science and agreed by a wide-range of multi-sector stakeholders.

Contribution of the proposed approach for decision-making

An important question in scientific research is the impact of science in decision making, and more specifically in landscape planning. At the local level of landscape planning there is dissatisfaction among citizens and experts about the outcomes of decision-making in governance (Beunen and Opdam, 2011). The development of our approach specifically could contribute to give more insight to politicians in their role as decision makers. Based on the results of the participatory process, we consider that it might be the right moment to promote a change in forestry policies. The results from the spatial analysis converged with those from the participatory process in the suitability of promoting natural forest ecosystems restoration where possible (e.g., public forest) and appropriate (e.g., high slopes or other adverse conditions for intensive management). To promote this change and favour forest multi-functionality, participants suggested that new financial mechanism and incentives should be created. Public administration could lead this change by using public lands to restore natural forest, redirecting subsidies to landowners to promote native tree plantations or facilitating other financial mechanism. In fact, this approach provides decision makers with tools to work in changing management policies and practices towards a more sustainable landscape. In forested areas of Finland, stakeholders also emphasised the importance of the national sustainable forestry policy and its financing instruments as a means to level and mitigate trade-offs (Hauck et al. 2013). Some experiences like this have also been proposed in agro-environment schemes (Schouten et al. 2013).

The local administration has found the applied approach relevant and useful for decision-making, and the results obtained are already being included in planning and decision-making processes in the area. The recently approved policy strategy of the County

Council of Biscay named *Biscay 21: a Sustainability Strategy for the County Council of Biscay* (DFB 2012) includes the elaboration of a *Forest Ecosystem Service Catalogue and Guidebook* that aims to include actions on the ground and recommendations to favour forest multi-functionality. In addition, the Technical Plans for Sustainable Forest Management, a compulsory administrative tool regulated by the County Council of Biscay, must be drawn up in accord with these specifications.

Involving local actors in decision making processes will result in more sustainable social-ecological systems (Schultz et al. 2007). However, it takes several years for a region with conventional forest management to change management strategies to more sustainable ones, thus the results presented here are not but the first steps of a longer iterative learning and decision making process. These first steps, however, serve as a consistent basis to go further into the implementation of the proposed changes through an iterative knowledge co-generation process that has already started, where those involved are part of the knowledge generation process, and guarantees for its usefulness, applicability and relevance (Johnsen 2005). In fact, landscape design created collaboratively by scientists and practitioners improves the impact of landscape science in society and enhances the saliency and legitimacy of landscape ecological scientific knowledge (Nassauer and Opdam 2008).

Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the Environment Department of the County Council of Biscay as well as of the Basque Government for funding the Millennium Ecosystem

380 Assessment in Biscay-Basque Country research project, of which this article is part of.

Special thanks go out to local stakeholders for their time and interest. This work was also financed by the Basque Government-University and Research Department (Grupos de Investigación IT734-13). ICA & JGA were founded by the Basque-Country Government with a Doctoral and Post-Doctoral grants (DEUI; BFI09.231 & BFI-2010-245). Authors

385 also acknowledge two anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments.

Tables with captions

Table 1 Summary of the main results obtained in the participatory process.

390

Questionnaire results (% of respondents)	Participants' perception on forest systems and their services	Most relevant drivers of change	Sustainable target scenario description	Management proposals
34.29% explicitly mentioned forest aspects on their open answers	Natural forests have a higher potential to provide ES to society than exotic plantations	Governance and institutional coherence	Proactive work is performed from the local to the global scale and vice versa	Coherence between policy and actions is needed: governments at different scales have an important role to play
Highest potential for successful intervention among drivers of change:	Currently some important ecosystem services, such as the aesthetic value of landscape diversification, are not sufficiently reinforced	Land and urban planning	Landscape multi-functionality is key in this scenario: biodiversity and carbon storage are enhanced	Strategic landscape planning and management is needed
- Indirect driver: Primary sector development (88.57% assigned the highest value);	The applied forest management type is relevant for the quality and quantity of ES	Primary sector development	Local sustainable productivity is promoted	New financial mechanism and incentives should be created
- Direct driver: Forest management (85.71% assigned the highest value)	Current lack of profitability: new business options (e.g., diversification of species)	Forest management	Sustainable forest management is reinforced, and the quality and variety of forest are improved	Changes in forest management and landscape planning should be promoted in an integrative and proactive way
		Ecosystems degradation	Autochthonous ecosystems and their functionality are conserved and recovered	Public lands are used to recover natural forest ecosystems
		Innovation and science	Society uses scientific knowledge to protect ecosystem functionality	Research and traditional knowledge recovery are essential
		Participatory policy making model	Education, local participation and knowledge society	Public awareness on the importance of Landscape multi-functionality should be reinforced:
				- Promotion of environmental education from early stages
				- Scientific and local knowledge should be spread to society through educational campaigns

Number of participants: Questionnaire on drivers of change = 35, Workshop =55, TOTAL (counting each individual just ones) = 66.

395 **Table 2** Total mean carbon storage per hectare and plant richness values expressed as the total number of native vascular plant species per forest type. The dominant species in each forest system type are shown in parenthesis. Values are mean±standard deviations.

Forest system	Mean Total Carbon (tC.ha-1)	Plant richness values
Beech forest (<i>Fagus sylvatica</i> L.)	212.75 ± 12.33	73
Mixed oak forest (<i>Quercus robur</i> L.)	195.17 ± 14.67	79
Cantabrian green oak forest (<i>Quercus ilex</i> L.)	151.65 ± 13.78	72
Coniferous plantations (<i>Pinus radiata</i> D. Don)	139.70 ± 15.71	61
Eucalyptus plantations (<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i> Labill.)	220.98 ± 10.97	30
Natural forest	187.94 ± 24.44	77 ± 3.79
Forest plantations	147.10 ± 27.96	54 ± 21.92

400 **Table 3** GLM summary statistics for biodiversity indicators: number of threatened animal species and number of total vertebrate species at the Biscay County. a) Natural forest vs. forest plantations; and b) different forest types considered.

Independent variables	Number of threatened animal species			Number of total vertebrate species		
	Estimate ± SE	z-value	p-value	Estimate ± SE	z	p
a)						
Intercept	2.73 ± 0.21	13.00	<0.001***	4.82 ± 0.09	53.89	<0.001***
Natural forest	4.81 ± 1.33	3.62	<0.001***	1.25 ± 0.58	2.14	<0.032**
Forest plantations	-0.32 ± 0.27	-1.19	0.234	-0.14 ± 0.11	-1.26	0.207
b)						
Intercept	2.45 ± 0.43	5.69	<0.001***	4.73 ± 0.17	27.54	<0.001***
Mixed oak forest	0.07 ± 0.04	1.86	0.063	2.09 ± 1.46	1.43	0.154
Cantabrian green oak forest	0.042 ± 0.02	2.48	0.013*	0.83 ± 0.74	1.12	0.263
Beech forest	0.07 ± 0.02	2.98	0.003**	2.28 ± 1.12	2.03	0.042*
Coniferous plantations	-0.01 ± 0.01	-0.20	0.839	-0.07 ± 0.14	-0.47	0.639
Eucalyptus plantations	0.01 ± 0.01	0.98	0.326	0.13 ± 0.56	0.24	0.812

405 SE = Standard Error. Significant at *p < 0.1, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.

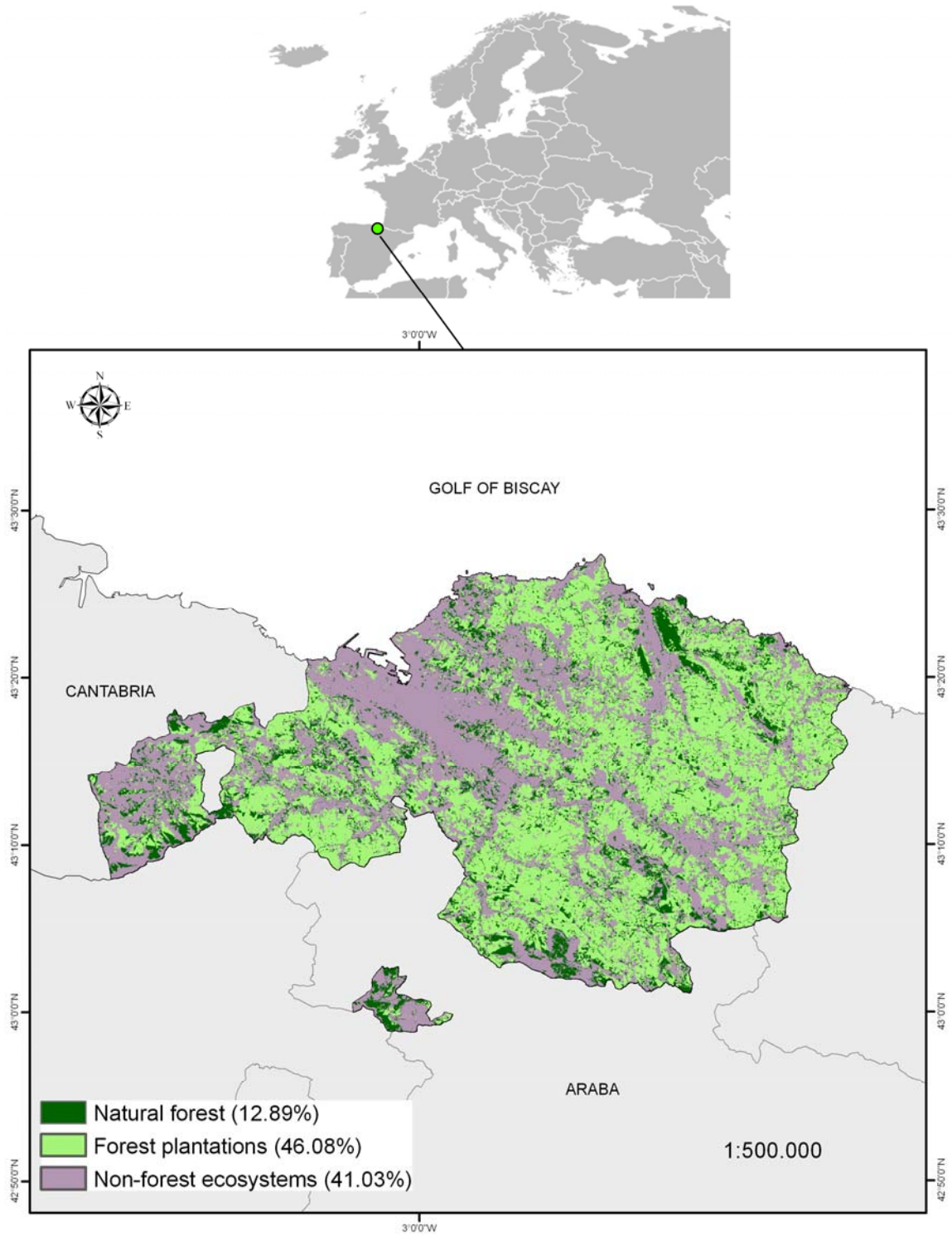
Figure Caption

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Fig. 1 Location of the study area and percentage cover of natural forest and forest plantations. Natural Forest includes mixed oak forest (8.21% of the total 2,217 km² surface), Cantabrian green oak forest (2.18%) and beech forest (1.74%). Forest plantations include conifer (38.63%) and eucalyptus (3.87%) plantations. Broad-leaved plantations (3.56%) and riparian forests (0.76%) were excluded from the analysis due to a lack of plant richness data in the region for these forest systems.

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Figure



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