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15 Abstract

Question: A comparison between predictive models to study the habitat distribution of *Buxus balearica* Lam. at a local scale.

18 Location: The distribution area of *Buxus balearica* studied was the Málaga and Granada 19 populations (Southern Spain), which includes almost its total Iberian Peninsula distribution 20 (36° and 38° N). The study area was restricted to basic soils, mainly marls and chalky ones, 21 which occupied a surface of 38,180 km².

Methods: The prediction models were tested based on 17 environmental variables. Six methods were compared: Multivariate adaptative regression spline (MARS), Maximum entropy approach to modelling species' distributions (Maxent), two generic algorithms based on environmental metrics dissimilarity (Bioclim and Domain), Algorithm for Rule-set Prediction (GARP), and supervised learning methods based on generalized linear classifiers (Support vector machines-SVMs). As a test of the predictive power of the models we used *Kappa* index.

29 Results: Maxent showed the better predictive accuracy, following by GARP models. All the other models tested obtained lower accuracy values. By comparing the predictive power of 30 31 Models, climate variables showed the highest contributions of the environmental variables 32 studied. The variables with lowest contributions were the isolation models. A test of 33 sensitivity to the reduction in the number of variables obtained an accuracy of over 0.90 by 34 applying just 3 climatic variables (spring rainfall, mean temperature of warmest month, and 35 mean temperature of coldest month). All algorithms produced maps that coincided well with 36 the known distribution of the species.

37 Conclusions: Maxent has showed the better habitat-specific predictive mapping model of the
38 *Buxus balearica* communities in southern Spain.

39 Keywords: Environmental gradient; Habitat distribution model; Mediterranean shrubs.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The genus Buxus is represented in Spain by two species, B. sempervirens L. and B. 42 balearica Lam. B. balearica is an evergreen shrub, rarely small trees, monoecious, more 43 robust and bigger than *Buxus sempervirens*, up to 5 m. high. It has glabrous stems and entire, 44 coriaceous and opposite (9-18 x 25-40 mm) leaves, dark green on their adaxial side and light 45 green on their back, with short petiole. Small flowers in inflorescence c. 10 mm in some leaf axils, where only one is female, sessile in the centre of the clusters, and the rest are male, 46 47 shortly pedicelled with four yellowish pieces and four stamens; the female ones have three 48 persistent styles. Flowering is IV-VI, and fruits are ovoid, loculicide capsules, trilocule, up to 49 7 mm. widely oblong, with its styles as long as its capsule. Seeds are black, with 2 in each 50 loculus.

51 Chorological studies show that B. balearica is a relict of Tertiary flora, which was much more abundant before but is nowadays relegated to calcareous soils at sea level or close 52 53 to the coast. B. balearica is confined to the Western Mediterranean area, concretely in the 54 Balearic Islands, Sardinia, and North of Morocco and also in sub-coastal mountains in the 55 South East of the Iberian Peninsula (Lázaro et al. 2006). Two other populations are also 56 known in Turkey, initially considered a different species. Its current distribution in Andalusía 57 consists of a few fragmented and isolated populations distributed throughout it from Malaga 58 to Almeria (Blanca 1999). Its populations have drastically decreased and a significantly 59 reduced number of individuals are found due to both climate change in the Mediterranean 60 region during the Holocene (Yll et al. 1997) and human activity during the last centuries (Yll et al. 1997, Lázaro et al. 2006). It has been catalogued as "vulnerable" by the UICN, and in 61 62 Spain, it is considered to be at risk of extinction in Andalusia (Blanca 1999).

All the evidence shows that *B. balearica* in southern Spain finds acceptable conditions
for flowering; fructification, seed production, dispersion and germination (Lázaro et al. 2006).

However, summer drought, the most crucial factor affecting the regeneration process in a number of Mediterranean species promotes an extreme environmental restriction for seedling establishment. Populations are thus doomed to disappear in the long term. The situation is even tougher due to the effect of wild fires and human pressure, which accelerate the population's fragmentation process and vanishment. This situation is creating a restrictive scenario for the species' conservation programs, demanding a higher precision in repopulation activities.

72 Ecological niche modelling is important for a variety of applications in ecology and 73 conservation (Graham and Hijmans 2006). For example, they attempt to provide detailed distribution cartography related to the spread of species (Thuiller et al. 2004), impacts on 74 75 climate change (Thomas et al. 2004, Matsui et al. 2009), and spatial patterns of species 76 diversity (Feldemeyer-Christe et al. 2007). As such, ecological niche modelling has been the 77 target for an impressive growth in attention in recent years (Guisan & Zimmermann 2000, 78 Thuiller et al. 2004, Thomas et al. 2004, Araújo et al. 2005, Soberón & Peterson 2005, 79 Graham and Hijmans 2006; Elith et al. 2006, Matsui et al. 2009) placing this technique among 80 emerging new approaches relevant to ecology, biogeography, and conservation biology.

81 The basic approach of these models is to combine a set of known occurrences together 82 with prediction variables such as topographic, climatic, edaphic, biogeography and remotely 83 sensed ones. Accurate occurrence data (presence and absence) are rarely available, especially 84 for rare species or inaccessible site locations. Correlative models using species presence and 85 absence locations records for habitat predictions have been referred to as discrimination 86 techniques, while those using only species presence records have been referred to as profile 87 techniques (Jeschke & Strayer, 2008). Examples of discrimination techniques include those 88 models based on discriminant analysis (Rogers et al. 1996), general linear model regression (GLM) (Cumming 2000), generalized additive models (GAM) (Leathwick & Whitehead 89

2001), Multivariate Adaptive Regression Spline (MARS) (Muñoz & Felicísimo 2004) and
decision-tree based methods (Araújo & Williams 2000). On the other hand, climate envelope
techniques (e.g., ANUCLIM, BIOCLIM, DOMAIN, FEM, HABITAT, and Mahalanobis
distance) used a classic bioclimatic modelling approach (Hirzel et al. 2002, Anderson et al.
2003). Comparisons of modelling techniques are a current issue of research (Jeschke &
Strayer 2008).

96 MARS has been applied to Mediterranean species in the past few years for many 97 authors dealing with habitat prediction (Muñoz & Felicísimo 2004; Navarro-Cerrillo et al. 98 2006) reporting accurate results for tree species. Classification algorithms commonly used are 99 CART or TREE NET, often less accurate than MARS (Muñoz & Felicisimo, 2004; Segurado 100 & Araujo 2004). Another group of techniques are generics algorithms based on environmental 101 dissimilarity metrics (BIOCLIM, HABITAT, DOMAIN o ENFA) (Beaumont et al., 2005). 102 More recently, a machine learning approach to predictive modelling has applied new 103 algorithms such as GARP (Genetic Algorithm for Rule-Set Prediction) (Stockwell & Peterson 104 2002, Anderson et al. 2003, Pape & Gaubert 2007) or MAXENT (Maximum Entropy) 105 (Phillips & Dubik 2008), which has proven especially successful in predicting species 106 potential distributions under a wide variety of situations.

Modelling prediction methods results in different geographic distributions depending mainly on species ecology specialization and number of samples (Stockwell & Peters 2002; Randin et al. 2006, Pearson 2006), so it is important to compare the performance of the many algorithms and approaches to project distributions within the same regions used to train the models (Elith et al. 2006, Guisan et al. 2007). Most studies have focused on species with a wide geographical distribution and large number of presence data (Beaumont et al. 2005; Phillips & Dubik 2008). On the contrary, spatial distribution modelling at a local scale has been less tested and experience obtained with habitat prediction of spread species cannot be easily generalized.

The aim of this contribution is to provide a comparison between modelling algorithms to study the habitat distribution of such a fragmented species as *Buxus balearica* Lam. by evaluating the prediction capability of different spatial distribution models at a local scale.

119 **2. Methods**

120 *2.1. Study area*

121 Buxus balearica was chosen as the species for analysis based on the criteria of 122 ecological relevance and fairly broad geographic distributions, giving sample sizes sufficient 123 for analysis. The distribution area of *Buxus balearica* studied in this work was the Málaga and 124 Granada populations, which includes almost its total Iberian Peninsula distribution with the exception of the Rágol locality (Almeria province) (36° and 38° north) (Figure 1). This area 125 126 extends along the southern slope of the Sierras de Almijara, Cázulas and Los Guájares. Part of 127 these mountains is nowadays protected by the Andalusian Government, the Natural Park of 128 the Sierras de Tejeda, Almijara and Alhama, with 40,600 ha. The study area was restricted to basic soils, mainly marls and chalky ones, which occupied a surface of 38,180 km². 129

130 Those mountain ranges form a geographical barrier between the provinces of Málaga 131 and Granada and constitute a continuous alignment of rocky escarpments reaching the most 132 prominent height in the South of Spain and Portuguese coast (Maroma summit, 2,068 m). It 133 acts as a corridor, connecting the Sierras of Málaga with Sierra Nevada, due to its longitudinal 134 distribution. The predominant geology is a consistent limestone, although in some areas there 135 are also Eocene loamy sandstones, limestones, and dolomite marbles. The growing season is 136 about 8-months (March to October), and annual precipitation averages from 450 or 500 mm 137 in coastal areas (Almuñécar, Vélez-Málaga) to more than 1000 mm in some mountainous 138 areas of the northern slope (Alfarnate, Zafarraya), the average values being 600-700 mm in

medium height mountainous areas facing the Mediterranean Sea (Cómpeta, Canillas). Dominant climate is a semi-arid Mediterranean (sensu Quézel) below 500 m above sea level and sub-humid Mediterranean (in mountains above 600 and 700 m). Monthly average temperatures oscillate between 11°C and 26°C. In spite of its Mediterranean climate, with a long dry period during the summer, Western warm and humid winds from the Strait of Gibraltar reach these mountains. These sea breezes condense at a certain altitude (generally in the evening) and compensate water deficit.

Forest species composition includes many myrtled-shape leaf species well adapted to
Mediterranean conditions, such as *Pistacia lentiscus* L., *P. terebinthus* L., *Rhamnus alaternus*L., *Buxus balearica*, *Coriaria myrtifolia* L., *Osyris quadripartite* Salzman *ex* Decaine, *Cneorum tricoccon* L. and *Quercus coccifera* L. among others. *B. balearica* can only be
found in the termo and meso-Mediterranean belts.

151 2.2. Data processing

152 The prediction models were tested based on 17 environmental variables 153 (Environmental Information Network of Andalusia-Consejeria de Medio Ambiente) (Table 154 1). All data sets were resampled to 10 m resolution for analysis to reflect the spatial resolution 155 of the occurrence data.

The topographical data – aspect (ASP), slope (SLP), Euclidean distance to the closest drainage (EDW), and isolation models (MPI) – were derived from a Land Digital Model (10 m resolution) (CMA, 1998). Altitude was not considered because the species appears indistinctly distributed from approx. 0 to 800 m. (Elevation range registers within the study area). Isolation was calculated with SHORTWAVC aml application (Felicísimo et al. 2002). Eight isolation models were calculated, one every 45 days throughout the year, on which total radiation received at the surface of the earth over a period of time was estimated (Table 2). Finally, taking into account the preference of *B. balearica* for areas where ambient humidity
may accumulate, Euclidean distance to the closest drainage area was calculated.

165 Meteorological data – winter rainfall (TP₁), spring rainfall (TP₂), summer rainfall 166 (TP₃), autumn rainfall (TP₄), mean temperature of warmest month (ATWM), mean maximum 167 temperature of warmest month (AMTWM), mean temperature of coldest month (ATCM), 168 mean minimum temperature of coldest month (AMTCM), – were obtained from a 28 weather 169 station network (National Institute of Meteorology). The time serial data were 1956-2000. 170 The methodology applied to obtain a 100 m grid of meteorological variables was the 171 interpolation of data from each station. This interpolation was based on multiple regression 172 analysis taking into account the position of each point (coordinates x, y), the altitude 173 (obtained from Land Digital Model), the distance to the sea and orientation weight (maximum value of 4 to SW orientation and minimum value of 0 to NE). The litology (LITO) was 174 175 obtained form a digital lithological map of the study area (scale: 1:100,000).

176 Current locations of *Buxus balearica* were obtained by field surveys using a GPS 177 (GPSmap® 60CSx), from herbarium specimens (Botanical Gardens-University of Córdoba) 178 and from historical citations. A value of presence (1) of *B. balearica* was assigned to 220 179 points and it was considered when the species presented itself, independently of population 180 density.

181 2.3. Modelling methods

182 Several approaches have been used to approximate the ecological niches of species183 (Elith et al. 2006). In this study, six methods were compared:

a) Multivariate adaptative regression spline, MARS, proposed by Friedman (1991)
provides an alternative regression-based method for fitting non-linear responses, using
piecewise linear fits rather than smooth functions. MARS uses a stepwise addition/deletion

187 strategy with linear splines and it adopts the generalized cross-validation criterion to add and188 select basic functions.

189 b) Maximum entropy approach to modelling species' distributions (Maxent) (Phillips 190 et al. 2006, Phillips 2006). Maxent estimates species probability distribution by finding the 191 probability distribution of the maximum entropy, subject to a set of constraints that represent 192 our incomplete information about the target distribution. Mathematical approach of Maxent is 193 based on the estimation of probability function for a species satisfying all the bioclimatic or 194 environmental limits associated while maintaining its distribution and maximum entropy. The 195 Maxent algorithm calculates the distance between the given environmental conditions to each 196 occurrence point and selects the closest distance. In terms of potential distribution, the 197 probability of the presence of a species can be interpreted as the probability of not finding any 198 biophysical limitations to the species' existence; therefore, the greater the entropy of a 199 system, the greater the probability of encountering sites without such limitations (Phillips & 200 Dubik 2008).

201 c) Climate envelope techniques.- The climate envelope modelling approach has its 202 foundations in ecological niche theory. Climate envelopes can be defined as constituting the 203 climatic component of the fundamental ecological niche, or the 'climatic niche'. Some 204 bioclimatic models are based on empirical relationships between observed species 205 distributions and environmental variables (Peterson 2006). Some examples are ANUCLIM, 206 BIOCLIM, DOMAIN, FEM, HABITAT, and Mahalanobis distance. They fit a minimal 207 envelope in a multidimensional climate space and use presence-only instead of 208 presence/absence data. On this study, two models were selected: BIOCLIM and DOMAIN.

d) Genetic Algorithm for Rule-set Prediction (GARP) (Stockwell & Noble 1992) is a
genetic algorithm that creates ecological niche models for species. The models describe
environmental conditions under which the species should be able to maintain populations. For

input, GARP uses a set of point localities where the species is known to occur and a set of geographic layers representing the environmental parameters that might limit the species' capability to survive. GARP works in an iterative process of rule selection, testing, and incorporation or rejection: first, a method is chosen from a set of possibilities (logistic regression, bioclimatic rules, range rules, negated range rules), and then is applied to the training data and a rule developed to maximize predictivity (Anderson et al. 2003).

e) Support vector machines (SVMs) are a group of supervised learning methods that 218 219 belong to a family of generalized linear classifiers. They can also be considered a special case 220 of Tikhonov regularization. SVMs can perform binary classification (pattern recognition) and 221 real valued function approximation (regression estimation). A special property of SVMs is 222 that they simultaneously minimize the empirical classification error and maximize the 223 geometric margin; hence they are also known as maximum margin classifiers. Support vector 224 machines map input vectors to a higher dimensional space, where a maximal separating hyper 225 plane is constructed. This hyper plane will attempt to split the input data into two classes. The 226 separating hyper plane is that which maximises the distance between the two classes. The 227 model only depends on a subset of the training data, because the cost function for building the 228 model does not care about training points that lie beyond the margin. Intuitively, this would 229 make the classification correct for testing data that was near, but not identical to the training 230 data.

231 2.4. Model evaluation

To assess the agreement between the presence-absence and the predictor's records three statistics were used: the area under curve (AUC), the correlation coefficient (COR) and the maximum Kappa (κ). The AUC ranges between 0 and 1. Cohen's Kappa (κ) is one measurement that can be derived from the confusion matrix. As a validation tool (i.e. when the 'truth' is known), it states the overall accuracy of a prediction once the element of chance

237 has been removed (Liu et al. 2005). Otherwise, Kappa can serve as a tool to assess reliability 238 of prediction in terms of relative agreement. A value near 0 indicates no discrimination 239 (agreement by chance); a value of 1 represents perfect discrimination (agreement); a value of > 0.6 is considered 'good' and >0.8 as 'excellent' (Graham & Hijmans, 2006). Kappa is 240 241 relatively tolerant to zeros in the confusion matrix and considers both omission and 242 commission errors in one parameter. However, Kappa is unimodally dependent on 243 prevalence, i.e. on the proportion of all presences in the full validation dataset (Allouche et al. 244 2006). This would have been a problem in this project, because the presences of known 245 species were few (training: ~ 150; test: ~70) compared to the large number of random 246 background points (>1000), which were deemed necessary for a reliable confusion matrix 247 given the large study area. Hence, the TSS (Allouche et al. 2006) was computed instead of 248 Kappa. It is defined as TSS = sensitivity + specificity - 1. In contrast to Kappa, TSS values 249 can be used to compare prediction performance regardless of both the validation dataset size 250 and the prevalence contained therein, while still featuring the same strengths of Kappa: full 251 consideration of sensitivity, specificity and chance (Allouche et al. 2006). Finally, the 252 concordance among models was evaluated through a correlation analysis.

253 **3. Results**

254 The area under curve (AUC) scores for these models showed a value of 0.73 for 255 Maxent, compared with 0.60 for GARP models, suggesting that GARP models are less 256 predictive than Maxent models (Figure 2). The same results were obtained with the kappa (κ) 257 coefficient and the correlation coefficient (COR) (Figure 2). All the other models tested 258 obtained lower accuracy values. The lowest accuracy was ranked by the Environmental 259 Distance model. The correlation matrix of the different models shows the spatial prediction 260 concordance between models (Table 2). The highest correlations were obtained in two 261 separate groups; first, between the generic algorithms based on environmental dissimilarity 262 metrics. The highest correlations were ranked by the Environmental Distance and the SVM 263 and Bioclime. The second was between Maxent and MARS, obtaining the highest 264 significance of the correlation

265 Maxent and MARS are different algorithms and follow different computational 266 routines although both produced similar potential distribution models on this study. The 267 relative contributions of the environmental variables were similar as well. Figure 3 shows a 268 heuristic estimate of the relative contributions of the environmental variables to the Maxent 269 and MARS model. To determine the estimate in each iteration of the training algorithm, 270 increase in regularized gain was added to the contribution of the corresponding variable. The 271 highest contributions fell on the climate variables: spring rainfall (TP₂), mean temperature of 272 warmest month (ATWM), and mean temperature of coldest month (ATCM) with proportional 273 weights. The variables with lowest contributions were the terrain isolation models. Figure 4 274 shows the results of the jackknife test of a variable importance. The environmental variable 275 with the highest gain when used in isolation is ATCM, which therefore appears to have the 276 most useful information by itself. The environmental variable that decreases the gain the most 277 when it is omitted is ATCM, which therefore appears to have the largest amount of 278 information that was not present in the other variables.

279 Once Maxent was identified as the most accurate model, a test of sensitivity to the 280 reduction in the number of variables and number of presence input data was performed. 281 Figure 5 shows the curve described by the AUC depending on the number of variables 282 introduced in the analysis. The number of variables introduced in each model is explained in 283 Table 3. Results show a decreasing tendency of the AUC with the reduction of the number of 284 variables. However, the model obtains an accuracy of over 0.90 by applying just 3 variables 285 (TP₂, ATWM, and ATCM). In contrast, the reduction in the number of presence input data 286 shows a greater sensitivity (Figure 6). The maximum number of points taken into the analysis

reach high values in the accuracy assessment of both Maxent and MARS. A reduction of 50%
in the number of presence data shows a reduction in kappa coefficient around 14.5% for
MARS and 6.7% for Maxent. Comparing both models, MARS is more sensitive to the
reduction in the number of presence input data.

All algorithms produced maps that coincided well with the known distribution of the species (Figure 7), although the GARP prediction tended to be overly extensive, and the Maxent model tended to be somewhat underpredicted. GARP models continued to reconstruct many of the species' known distributions. Maxent models, on the other hand, produced an odd pattern coincident with the input data set at higher probability values reconstructing the on-diagonal quadrants or the off-diagonal quadrants, depending on which were used to train the models (Figure 7).

298 **4. Discussion**

299 4.1 Model evaluation.

300 Differences in prediction performance between modelling methods at a local scale is 301 shown on this study. In general terms, results agree with those obtained from the application 302 of the same models to the species distribution at a regional and global scale (Elith et al. 2006, 303 Austin 2007). The generics algorithms based on environmental dissimilarity metrics obtain 304 poor results compared with those obtained by the machine learning approach. The accuracy of 305 Maxent was significantly higher than all the prediction models evaluated. The computational 306 efficiency of each model should be evaluated considering three main aspects: pre- processing 307 required for the input data, processing efficiency of the model itself, post-processing required 308 to acquire statistical and cartographical prediction. Generic algorithm models based as 309 BIOCLIM, DOMAIN, SVC, or GARP, are of a great computational efficiency. Implemented 310 in common free software like the open modeller (http://openmodeller.sourceforge.net), and 311 identical input data are used for all of them. The user-friendly interface and the fast 312 computation of the algorithm may prove the usefulness of these models at a regional and 313 global scale. Nevertheless, at a local scale, the results show low accuracy values and poor 314 prediction maps. Maxent and MARS significantly improves all the predictions. Although 315 Maxent share all the computational advantages of generic algorithms, MARS presents some 316 drawbacks. The input data have to be introduced in a specific format (.sav) with the 317 environmental data information extracted from the presence/absence data. This process 318 involves the necessity to process all the information with Arc/info. Once the functions are 319 generated, it is necessary to apply a specific routine programmed in AML to obtain the raster 320 prediction with ArcInfo.

321 In contrast, Maxent not only exhibits a high computational efficiency, it also produces 322 an extensive statistical report of the model. In order to test the sensitivity of the model to 323 different analysis were performed. The first one consisted of the reduction of the number of 324 variables. The high accuracy obtained with just three climate variables shows the strong 325 dependency of the species studied on the climatology conditions. This last result is a very 326 important one from the point of view of the study and assessment of the distribution of Buxus 327 balearica. The last test performed on the Maxent model was the reduction in the number of 328 presence input data. Compared to the MARS model, the reduction in accuracy was 329 significantly lower with the Maxent model. This last result is also very important insofar as 330 the input data of presence are relatively inaccessible. Apart from this difference in accuracy 331 and computational efficiency, the prediction maps agree between Maxent and MARS, as well 332 as the importance of the variables in the model.

333 4.2. Potential distribution model of Buxus balearica.

Within the meso-Mediterranean and supra-Mediterranean climate types, *B. balearica* was observed at 220 locations. The digital model developed for predicting the distribution of *B. balearica* is a probabilistic raster map, shown in Figure 7. Kappa index results achieved

337 0.84 accuracy rating in predicting both presence and absence of the species. Response curve 338 diagrams produced along with the model output indicate the effect of individual variables on 339 the Maxent prediction. Environmental variables based on meteorological data made the 340 highest contribution to the potential distribution. The single variable making the greatest 341 contribution to defining the potential distribution of the species was mean temperature of 342 warmest month (ATWM). The species presents an alarming sensitivity to thermic variations. 343 B. balearica limits itself to areas with average temperatures ranging from 24.6 to 25.4°C 344 during the warmest month. Results of the mean maximum temperature of warmest month 345 (AMTWM) indicate a species tolerance within a range between 31°C and 32°C. As a 346 consequence, a climate change scenario of solely one degree could greatly diminish the 347 survival possibilities of this species. It is also clear that the low tolerance of *B. balearica* to frost, disappearing as a result of competition with other species in areas where mean 348 349 temperature of coldest month (ATCM) is below 7°C and mean minimum temperature of 350 coldest month (AMTCM) is below 3°C.

351 Seasonal precipitation also showed itself to have a great impact on the distribution 352 model, measured by total trimester precipitation. Spring rainfall (TP₂) showed yet again the 353 species's sensitivity to climatic and irregularity during the spring-summer season. It could be 354 said that in areas with the presence of *B. balearica* annual precipitation is above 500 mm, 355 with spring precipitations above 110 mm and summer rainfall (TP_3) at least 25 or 30 mm. 356 Consequently, B. balearica requires certain soil moisture. However, this interpretation may be 357 incomplete, considering the lack of data concerning crypto-precipitations. This added 358 condensation is continually scarcer due to the climate variations observed in the last decades 359 within the region.

360 The response to orientation models MDI5 (12.5°) and MDI4 (22.5°) with respect to 361 MDI2 (0°) showed a significant contrast. During the summer solstice (sun at its maximum 362 height), the majority of locations with presence of the species receive a great amount of 363 energy while during the winter solstice (sun at its lowest position) solar radiation is at its 364 lowest. According to model results, B. balearica distribution is more affected by solar 365 isolation during the period between the summer solstice and fall equinox (MDI5-12.5°). The 366 distribution of the species, on the other hand, was indifferent to aspect, even though a slight 367 preference was shown for a southerly orientation. These results agree with field observations, 368 in which B. balearica was seen to be distributed with various orientations. Slope was also no 369 significant in determining the presence or absence of the species, as it appears in slopes of a 370 varying steepness.

371 Euclidean distance to nearest drainage, based on a watershed model, was an influential 372 factor in determining the presence of the species. B. balearica specimens appear to take 373 refuge in precipices, streams and rivers, and certainly not so much because of subsoil moisture, but more likely because it is in such areas that the species is subject to less incident 374 375 radiation. Even more so because in these areas it is able to avoid forest fires, which here do 376 not reach great intensity, and conditions allow the plant resprouting. Moreover, seedling 377 mortality due to summer drought can be overcome in the riparian zone (brooks and streams of 378 seasonal flows).

379 **5.** Conclusion

An evaluation of model performance to predict the distribution of *Buxus balearica* is described in this paper. It is important to note that many applications of species distribution models depend on predicting potential distributions, rather than realized distributions. Facing increasing climate change and human pressure, *B. balearica* populations will tend to shelter in areas with microclimate conditions that are less unfavourable and which limit evapotranspiration, regardless of altitude or topography. Average performance of different habitat distribution models for current versions showed that Maxent, evaluated on 387 independent presence/absence test, may be applied to predict potential distributions of B. 388 balearica.

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497 **Table 1**. Environmental variables resampled to 10 m resolution used on the prediction

498 models.

Variable	COD	Source
Aspect	ASP	Generated from DEM
Slope	SLO	Generated from DEM
Euclidean distance to watershed	EDW	Generated from DEM
Model of Potential Insolation , Solar Declination 22.5°	MPI+22.5	Generated from DEM
Model of Potential Insolation, Solar Declination 12.5°	MPI+12.5	Generated from DEM
Model of Potential Insolation, Solar Declination 0°	MPI 0	Generated from DEM
Model of Potential Insolation, Solar Declination -12.5°	MPI-12.5	Generated from DEM
Model of Potential Insolation, Solar Declination -22.5°	MPI-22.5	Generated from DEM
Total Precipitation (January- March)	TP1	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Total Precipitation (April-June)	TP2	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Total Precipitation (July- September)	TP3	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Total Precipitation (October- December)	TP4	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Average temperature of the warmest month	ATWM	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Average maximum temperature of the warmest month	AMTWM	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Average temperature of the coldest month	ATCM	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Average minimum temperature of the coldest month	AMTCM	National Institute of metherology (INM) (www.mapya.es)
Lithology	LITO	Department of Environment of the Government of Andalusia

	Bioclim	Maxent	MARS	GARP	SVM	ENV_DIST
Bioclim	1.000					
Maxent	-0.040	1.000				
MARS	-0.180	0.807***	1.000			
GARP	0.769**	0.303*	0.240	1.000		
SVM	0.856**	0.290	-0.110	0.798**	1.000	
ENV DIST	0.856**	0.290	-0.110	0.798**	1.000**	1.000

500 **Table 2.** Bivariate Pearson Correlation matrix of the concordance of the different spatial501 distribution models analysed.

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503 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

504 ***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

505 **Table 3.** Sensitivity analysis of Maxent model. The table shows from right to left, the 506 variables introduced, the code assigned to the model and the relative importance of the last 507 variable introduced. Variables on table 1.

508

Model	Cod	Imp.
ATWM	Mod_01	24
ATWM, ATCM	Mod_02	12.9
ATWM, ATCM, TP2	Mod_03	12.2
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM	Mod_04	7.8
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5	Mod_05	5.8
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5	Mod_06	5.6
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3	Mod_07	5.3
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AM <mark>TCM</mark> , MPI-22.5, TP3,	Mod_08	5.2
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4	Mod_09	5.1
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP	Mod_10	4.7
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM	Mod_11	3.8
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW	Mod_12	3.5
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1	Mod_13	2.1
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1, MPI0	Mod_14	0.7
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1, MPI0, MPI-12.5	Mod_15	0.7
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1, MPI0, MPI-12.5, ASP	Mod_16	0.4
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1, MPI0, MPI-12.5, ASP, MPI+12.5	Mod_17	0.1
ATWM, ATCM, TP2, AMTCM, MPI-22.5, TP3, TP4, TP, AMTWM, EDW, TP1, MPI0, MPI-12.5, ASP, MPI+12.5, MPI+22.5	Mod_18	0.1



530 **Figure 1.** Distribution of *Buxus balearica* on the study locations area (Southern Spain).



Figure 2. Comparison of the validation coefficients obtained by the application of six
different spatial distribution models: BIOCLIM (BIO), GARP, DOMAIN (ENV_DIST),
SVM, MARS and MAXENT.



545 Figure 3.- Relative contributions of the environmental variables to the Maxent model (a) and 546 to the MARS model (b).



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 Figure 4.- Jack-knife test of variable importance to the Maxent model. 552





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- 558 Figure 5.- Sensitivity analysis of Maxent model based on the reduction in the number of variables.
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571 Figure 6.- Accuracy functions of Maxent model and MARS depending on the number of

- 572 presence input data.
- 573
- 574



578 Figure 7.- Potential distributions of *Buxus balearica* obtained by the application of MAXENT,
579 MARS, GARP and ENVIRONMENTAL DISTANCE (ENV_DIST).