- 1 Mapping the next forest generation the potential of national forest
- 2 inventory data for identifying regeneration gaps
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8 Abstract

9 In light of global change and forest disturbances, there is an increasing recognition of the importance 10 of forest regeneration to ensure future generations of trees. However, despite the importance of 11 forest regeneration, there is a lack in spatial information on the current availability of trees in the 12 seedling and sapling stage. In this study, we aimed to evaluate the potential to predict speciesspecific forest regeneration densities using regeneration data typically recorded within National 13 14 Forest Inventories (NFIs). We then calculated three indicators for regeneration quantity and quality 15 to locate potential gaps of regeneration under a changing climate. We successfully calibrated 16 regeneration density models for 22 tree species using generalised additive models (GAMs) using 17 regeneration density data from the 2012 German NFI and 44 environmental predictors. 18 Subsequently, the models were used to create regeneration density maps for the German forest area 19 at high spatial resolution (1 ha). Regeneration gaps were evaluated in terms of low total density 20 $(<1,000 \text{ ha}^{-1})$, low species richness (≤ 2 species) and a high proportion ($\geq 75\%$) of regeneration at high 21 future cultivation risk. Our results indicate gaps in terms of total regeneration density and species 22 richness for 13.4% and 47.1% of the forest area of Germany, respectively. A lack of climate-adapted 23 species was found for 25.2%, exemplarily assessed for the Bavarian forest area. Along this example, 24 we show how such results can be used to identify areas that require additional silvicultural

- 25 intervention in order to increase the resilience of future forests. Our study highlights the potential of
- 26 NFI data, particularly that on forest regeneration, and demonstrates the applicability of regeneration
- 27 indicator maps for forest management and policymakers in times of change.

28 Keywords

- 29 Forest regeneration, species distribution models SDMs, generalized additive models GAMs, sapling
- 30 density, species richness, climate-adapted species, cultivation risk

31 Introduction

32 Forests are ecosystems of global importance including their value for human well-being. However,

33 forest ecosystems are increasingly affected by ongoing climate change. In Europe, repeated droughts

have caused increased spread of pests and diseases, defoliation of trees (Potočić et al., 2021),

reduced tree growth (Martinez del Castillo et al., 2022) and higher tree mortality (George et al.,

36 2022; Senf et al., 2020). The consequences are more open canopies and more and larger

37 disturbances (Senf & Seidl, 2021). This dynamic constitutes a partial loss of a forest generation,

38 which makes it necessary to consider the subsequent generation, the regenerating trees that are in

39 the seedling and sapling stage.

40 Forest regeneration determines present and future forest resilience under increasing disturbances

41 and higher canopy mortality. A high density of seedlings and saplings can accelerate the regrowth of

42 a closed canopy, avoid arrested succession (Royo & Carson, 2006) and serve as an advanced start of

43 post-disturbance forest reorganization (Seidl et al., 2024; Seidl & Turner, 2022). Furthermore,

44 regeneration is key for the species composition and stand structure of future mature stands, and

45 thus is targeted by management to adapt forests to climate change (Fischer et al., 2016; Löf et al.,

46 2018). While natural regeneration is the dominant regeneration type in many European forest

- 47 systems, seeding, planting and cutting treatments are selectively applied to ensure forest
- 48 regeneration, increase the proportion of climate-adapted tree species and create more mixed forest

stands (Erdozain et al., 2024; Löf et al., 2019). To assess how well forest regeneration is adapted to
future climate developments and where targeted forestry measures would be necessary, regional
quantification of regeneration is needed. Hence, it is essential to monitor small tree stages at large
scales and at high spatial resolution.

53 One of the most important data sources on forests at large spatial scales are national forest 54 inventories (NFIs). Besides statistically representative information on mature trees at regular time 55 intervals, most European NFIs also include assessments of regeneration, i.e. trees below the 56 threshold of diameter at breast height (dbh; Gschwantner et al., 2022; McRoberts et al., 2011). 57 Forest regeneration is often measured as local regeneration densities by counting individuals per tree 58 species and size class within small sampling areas, e.g. from 12 m² to 79 m² (Gschwantner et al., 59 2024; McRoberts et al., 2011). The potential of such NFI regeneration data is largely untapped and 60 underestimated. First, despite the intense collection of forest regeneration information, the level of 61 detail in the NFI reports is low. The reports either provide no information on forest regeneration 62 (Lackner et al., 2023) or only the dominant type of regeneration, such as natural regeneration or 63 planting, aggregated at the national level (e.g. Bundesministerium für Ernährung und Landwirtschaft, 64 2024; Rigling & Schaffer, 2015). NFI reports thus lack information on the quantity and quality of 65 forest regeneration, such as total seedling and sapling density, tree species richness or species 66 composition. Second, it is a widespread perception that inference on forest regeneration and its 67 patterns along large environmental gradients using NFI data is challenging or impossible due to high 68 spatial heterogeneity, many interacting stochastic processes (Price et al., 2001; Shoemaker et al., 69 2020) and the relatively small plot size for regeneration assessments. Nevertheless, NFI and regional 70 inventory data on forest regeneration have been used to identify important drivers of regeneration 71 (e.g. Axer et al., 2021; Martini et al., 2024; Vayreda et al., 2013) and to calibrate empirical models of 72 regeneration distributions (Hasenauer et al., 2000; Kolo et al., 2017). This suggests that NFI 73 regeneration data may have the potential to map the next generation of forests at large spatial 74 scales.

75 A common approach to creating continuous maps from NFI sample plot data is to use species 76 distribution models (SDMs; Hernández et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2025), which make use of a species' 77 ecological niche. SMDs are fitted for tree species at national and continental scale to create detailed 78 maps of current tree species distributions (Blickensdörfer et al., 2024; Bonannella et al., 2022) and 79 gain insights into potential tree species distributions under climate change (e.g. Dyderski et al., 2018; 80 Lima et al., 2024). However, these attempts focus on large trees above the dbh threshold. Although 81 the drivers of regeneration are becoming better understood (e.g. Axer et al., 2021; Martini et al., 82 2024; Vayreda et al., 2013), empirical models have not been applied to predict regeneration in space. 83 The advantages of such regeneration maps would be their ability to provide information at 84 unobserved locations, allowing for regional assessment of the current status and potential gaps of 85 regeneration quantity and quality at high spatial resolutions and at large spatial scales. Such species-86 specific regeneration maps could be used for early detection of post-disturbance reorganisation 87 (Seidl et al., 2024), initialisation of dynamic forest simulation models (Díaz-Yáñez et al., 2024) and deriving regeneration indicators to inform forest management (Fischer et al., 2016). 88

89 Important indicators for the ability of forest regeneration to contribute to a more resilient next forest 90 generation are its total density, species richness and proportion of climate-adapted species (Cerioni 91 et al., 2024; König et al., 2022). High total regeneration density maintains the ability to establish the 92 next forest generation (Hanbury-Brown et al., 2022). High species richness can reduce losses of 93 productivity and biomass under more extreme climatic conditions and increased of disturbances 94 (Mori et al., 2021; Sebald et al., 2021). For example, it can provide insurance, trait complementarity 95 and facilitation (Jactel et al., 2017). A high proportion of climate-adapted species can indicate better 96 resilience of the future mature forest stand and high economic value under climate change (Erdozain 97 et al., 2024; Hanewinkel et al., 2013). Evaluation of these indicators at high spatial resolution is 98 essential to assess regeneration as a potential for future forests.

99 Here, we assess the potential of regeneration density models calibrated with NFI data to infer and 100 evaluate the current quantity and quality of forest regeneration at high spatial resolution. We built 101 flexible species-specific regeneration models using the untapped regeneration density data of the 102 German NFI in combination with 44 environmental variables, describing the environmental 103 preferences of the tree species in early life stages. Subsequently, we used the regeneration models to 104 predict the regeneration density per tree species for the German forest area at a resolution of 1 ha 105 (100 x 100 m). We then assessed indicators of potential regeneration gaps by quantifying the currently available total regeneration density. Additionally, we evaluated regeneration quality, which 106 107 is defined as species richness and the proportion of climate-adapted tree species in early life stages, 108 the latter indicated as a low proportion of regeneration at high cultivation risk. We show that NFI 109 regeneration data and derived products have high potential to inform solutions to current challenges 110 of forest management and global change at regional, national, and continental scales.

111 Materials and Methods

112 We combined regeneration density observations from the German NFI to map the forest

regeneration across Germany and evaluate potential regeneration gaps using a three-step approach.

114 First, we combined the NFI regeneration data with environmental data to construct species-specific

regeneration models (Figure 1). Second, we evaluated the predictive performance of the

regeneration models using 10-fold spatially blocked cross-validation and used the validated models

- 117 to predict regeneration densities for the forest area of Germany. Third, we mapped indicators of
- regeneration quantity and quality, demonstrating their potential application for Bavaria. The full
- 119 workflow of modelling and data analysis can be found at
- 120 https://github.com/LeonieCG/GermanRegenerationMaps2012 and
- 121 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15552196.



122

Figure 1: Workflow and criteria for the identification of potential regeneration gaps across German forests. To generate species-specific maps of current forest regeneration, we calibrated species-specific regeneration density models using data from the German National Forest Inventory (NFI). These maps allowed us to identify regions where forest regeneration has too low total density, low species richness, or high future cultivation risk. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted national boundaries.

128 Regeneration data

- 129 We used forest regeneration data from the most recent published German NFI
- 130 (Bundeswaldinventur), conducted in 2011 and 2012 (Thünen-Institut, 2015). The German NFI is
- 131 conducted every ten years to assess tree and stand characteristics that are representative of the
- 132 German forests. The sampling design is based on a regular grid with each cluster point consisting of
- four sample plots (survey design detailed in Riedel et al., 2017). We used regeneration counts
- assessed at each sample plot, with individuals counted per species and size category within subplots

135 of 2 m radius (12.57 m²). The size categories for regeneration were defined as: Category 1: >50-130 136 cm in height, Category 2: >130 cm in height - 4.9 cm dbh, Category 5: 5.0-5.9 cm dbh, Category 6: 137 6.0-6.9 cm dbh. Individuals were counted regardless of regeneration type, i.e. no distinction was 138 made between natural, sown or planted regeneration. For our analyses, we summed up the counted 139 individuals per species across all categories and evaluated data availability and average abundance 140 for each tree species. Within the German NFI, the most common tree species in the regeneration 141 were Fagus sylvatica L. (29.9% of the total regeneration), Picea abies (L.) H.Karst. (16.9%) and Acer 142 pseudoplatanus L. (8.7%; Table S2). The tree species Sorbus domestica L. had no records, although it 143 would be part of the German NFI regeneration protocol and was therefore excluded from further 144 analysis. In total, our regeneration dataset covered information of 43 tree species at 59,848 NFI plot 145 locations.

146 **Predictors of regeneration patterns**

147 To calibrate the predictive species distribution models, we used 44 environmental predictors related 148 to topography, soil, macroclimate, microclimate, stand structure, space and time (Table 1). The 149 environmental predictor values were preferably obtained from the NFI (meta) data and, if not 150 available, from a corresponding raster layer at each NFI plot location (Table 1). Predictor information 151 at each plot location was retrieved by the Thünen-Institute, as the true plot locations are not 152 published. The regeneration density and environmental datasets were then combined, and 153 observations with missing predictor values were removed. The resulting dataset consisted of 52,305 154 NFI plot observations used for model calibration (full dataset is available at 155 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864). 156 For the prediction of forest regeneration, we prepared information on the environmental variables 157 for the entire forest area of Germany. The base raster layer of the forest area was created by

- recalculating the forest area map by Langer et al. (2022) to a 1 ha resolution and to the coordinate
- 159 system of the cultivation risk maps (see below). Then, each predictor raster dataset was transformed

using the base raster layer, and all datasets were set to the same coordinate system, extent and resolution. The predictors *coordinate* and *conspecific basal area*, were only available at NFI plot location and not as raster layers. Raster layers for *x* and *y coordinates* were created using the cell centroid coordinates of the base layer. Whereas the raster layers for *conspecific basal area* were derived using the NFI basal area data and the same modelling and prediction approach used for regeneration (see below).

166 Table 1: Predictor variables used for the calibration of the species-specific regeneration density models.

Category	Variable	Unit	Spatial extent	Spatial resolution	Measurement time	Reference	
Topography	Eastness exposition	-	Europe	25 x 25 m	2011	Derived from	
	Northness exposition	-	_			Thünen-Institut (2015) or from European Environment Agency (2016)	
Soil	Elevation above sea level	meters	Europe	25 x 25 m	2011	Thünen-Institut (2015) or European Environment Agency (2016)	
Soil	Available water capacity	%	Europe	500 x 500 m	2009	Ballabio et al.	
Category Topography Soil Soil	Bulk density	t m³	_			(2016)	
	Clay	%	_				
	Coarse fragments	%	_				
	Sand	%	_				
	Silt	%	_				
	CaCO₃	g kg ⁻¹	Europe	500 x 500 m	2009-2012	Ballabio et al.	
	Cation exchange capacity	cmol kg ⁻¹	_			(2019)	
	C-N-ratio	-	_				
	К	mg kg ⁻¹	_				
	Ν	g kg ⁻¹	_				
	Р	mg kg ⁻¹	_				
	pH in CaCl	-	_				
	Available water capacity in effective rooting depth	mm	Germany	250 x 250 m	NA	Duijnisveld (2015)	
	Water and wetness probability index	%	Europe	20 x 20 m	2015	European Environment Agency (2018b)	
	organic carbon	%	Europe	1000 x 1000 m	1800-2000	Jones et al. (2005	
	Total NH ₄ immission	eq ha ⁻¹ a ⁻¹	Germany	1000 x 1000 m	2013-2015	Schaap et al.	
	Total NO ₃ immission	eq ha ⁻¹ a ⁻¹	_			(2018)	
	Total N immission	eq ha ⁻¹ a ⁻¹	_				
Macroclimate	Climatic water balance over the GDD period	mm	Europe	30 x 30 arcsec	1979–2013	Heiland et al. (2022)	
	Climatic water balance	mm					
	Growing degree days	°C d					
	Mean annual precipitation	mm	Global	30 x 30 arcsec	1981-2010	Karger et al.	
	Precipitation seasonality	%				(2017, 2018)	
	Mean daily minimum air temperature of the coldest month	°C	_				

	Mean annual air temperature	°C				
	Annual range of air temperature	°C	-			
	Mean diurnal air temperature	°C	_			
	range		_			
	Temperature seasonality	0.01 °C				
	Aridity index	-	Global	30 x 30 arcsec	1970-2000	Trabucco and
	Potential evapotranspiration	0.0001 mm				Zomer (2019)
Microclimate	Minimum temperature of the coldest month	°C	Europe	25 x 25 m	2000-2020	Haesen et al. (2023)
	Mean annual temperature	°C	_			
	Annual temperature range	°C	_			
	Mean diurnal temperature range	°C	_			
	Temperature seasonality	0.01 °C	_			
Stand structure	Tree cover density	%	Europe	20 x 20 m	2011-2013	European Environment Agency (2018a)
	Conspecific basal area (from angle count unit 1 and 2)	m² ha-1	Germany	100 x 100 m	2011-2012	Thünen-Institut (2015) and this study
Space	Federal state of Germany	-	Germany	none and 100 x 100 m	2013 and 2022	Thünen-Institut (2015) and derived from Bundesamt für Kartographie und Geodäsie (2022)
	NFI plot coordinate x and y value (anonymized)	-	Germany	1000 x 1000 m	2016	Thünen-Institut (2015) and this study
Time	Month and year of NFI measurement	-	Germany	none	2011-2012	Thünen-Institut (2015)

167 **Regeneration models**

168 As predictive species-specific models of forest regeneration density, we calibrated generalized 169 additive models (GAMs; Wood, 2017) with a negative binomial distribution and a log link function. 170 We used GAMs with cubic regression splines (Wood et al., 2016) to allow for a broad spectrum of 171 non-linear relationships between regeneration densities and our chosen environmental predictors. In 172 addition, we included variables of space and time in our models. The time variable is used to account for seasonal differences in growing conditions and detection probability during the sampling period 173 and consists of month and year of NFI measurement. We used the anonymized plot coordinates 174 175 provided by the NFI to account for unobserved spatial predictors. These anonymized plot coordinates 176 are the actual plot coordinates that have been transferred to a 1 x 1 km grid and then returned as 177 grid cell coordinates (Hennig, 2022). We also included *federal state* as a predictor to account for 178 potential differences in incentives of regeneration establishment and management of regeneration 179 between states. Environmental predictors were included as fixed effects, whereas month and year of

180 NFI measurement and federal state were included as random effects in our models. Plot coordinates 181 were included using a tensor product smooth to account for unexplained spatial variability in the 182 regeneration densities. GAM smoothness selection and estimation of the negative binomial functions 183 theta value was performed using fast restricted maximum likelihood estimation. Basis dimensions of 184 smoothing splines were kept at moderate complexities for environmental fixed effects (k = 10) and 185 were set to 25 in x and 50 in y direction for spatial effects. We allowed fixed effects to be shrunk to 186 zero, serving as a variable selection technique (Wood, 2017), and used a ridge penalty for random 187 effects.

To interpolate conspecific basal area for the German forest area to predict regeneration, the same model structure with basal area as the response, a Tweedie distribution and a log link function was used. We calibrated basal area models for each regeneration tree species which remained after model evaluation (see below) and used the same prediction approach as described for regeneration density, without cross-validation. The plausibility of the species-specific basal area distributions was assessed by visual comparison with distribution maps of the European atlas of forest tree species (Caudullo et al., 2016).

Models were fitted with the function bam() suited for large data sets (Wood et al., 2015) from the R
package mgcv (v.1.9.1, Wood, 2023).

197 Model evaluation

Statistical assumptions of the regeneration models were assessed based on simulated residuals generated with the package DHARMa (v.0.4.6, Hartig, 2022). We visually evaluated distributional and residual assumptions as well as zero-inflation resulting in no critical violations (plots of simulated residuals can be found in Supplementary Material 1). To ensure that the observations are spatially independent, even though we are having a clustered sampling design for the NFI, we tested for spatial autocorrelation within scaled simulated residuals per cluster. We found a tendency for spatial autocorrelation for the regeneration models of *Betula pendula* Roth, *Betula pubescens* Ehrh., *Quercus* *petraea* (Matt.) Liebl. and *Tilia* spp. (*T. platyphyllos* Scop. and *T. cordata* Mill.; see Table S1). However,
given the models' satisfactory performance in cross-validation (see the subsequent paragraph), we
assume that they generalize across space and likely capture meaningful spatial patterns.

208 In a next step, predictive model performance was assessed using a 10-fold spatially blocked cross-209 validation with the package blockCV (v.3.1.4; Valavi et al., 2019, 2024). Blocks were set up with 210 hexagonal block shapes and block sizes corresponding to the spatial autocorrelation range of the 211 response variables. Block sizes were found to be too large for some species, resulting in less than 10 212 blocks. In these cases, we set the range to 300 km resulting in 11 blocks for Germany (Table S1). For 213 each fold, the mean absolute error (MAE) as an indicator for model performance (Chai & Draxler, 214 2014) and pseudo-R² (Cameron & Windmeijer, 1997) as an indicator of explanatory power were 215 computed for the test and training data. For MAE, we calculated the relative MAE from the test and training MAE $\left(\frac{MAE_{test}}{MAE_{train}}\right)$. The median was used to aggregate values of relative MAE and test pseudo-216 217 R^2 across all folds. We considered models where the following criteria were met: median relative 218 MAE ≤ 2 and median pseudo-R² ≥ 0.1 .

219 Predictions

After the evaluation of model assumptions and predictive model performance, regeneration models for 22 tree species were available to be used for prediction (Table 2). Regeneration density maps across German forests were created using raster layers covering the forest area of Germany for each environmental predictor. The time variable *month and year of NFI measurement* was excluded from the predictions, which results in predictions corresponding to average conditions. Finally, we converted the predicted regeneration counts per 2 m radius plot (approximately 12.6 m²) to regeneration densities (counts per hectare).

227 Derived regeneration indicators

We selected three indicators to measure whether regeneration can secure future forests and maintain their multifunctionality in a changing climate. These indicators include sufficient total regeneration density to ensure regrowth of forests e.g. after disturbance, sufficient species richness to distribute the risk of various possible future climate trajectories, and species composition with a low proportion of regeneration at high future cultivation risk.

The total regeneration density was calculated by summing up the densities for all 22 tree species per grid cell. We defined <1,000 ha⁻¹ as insufficient, 1,000-2,000 ha⁻¹ as intermediate and \geq 2,000 ha⁻¹ as sufficient evaluation thresholds. Since reports of sufficient regeneration density thresholds vary, e.g. 1,591 ha⁻¹ (Kolo et al., 2017) or 2,000 ha⁻¹ (Bayerisches Staatsministerium für Ernährung, Landwirtschaft und Forsten, 2023), we chose an intermediate total regeneration density of 1,000-2,000 ha⁻¹.

Tree species richness was calculated as the number of species with at least 5% of the total number of regeneration (Mages et al., 2020). For Central European conditions, a species richness of three or four species has been proposed to be sufficient (Lindner et al., 2025; Mages et al., 2020). Since our analysis included only a part of the available tree species, i.e. 22 out of 43 species, we defined ≤2 species within the regeneration layer as insufficient, 3-4 species as intermediate and ≥5 species as sufficient.

To more precisely assess how the current regeneration fits future conditions, we used Bavaria, a federal state located in southwest Germany, as a case study (see Box 1). We combined our speciesspecific regeneration density maps with the cultivation risk maps provided by the Bavarian State Institute of Forestry (Falk et al., 2013, 2019). These were developed as an information and planning tool for forest practitioners throughout Bavaria and are actively used to select tree species considering climate projections and local site conditions. The cultivation risk maps are based on predicted occurrence probabilities of adult trees in the year 2100 assuming an average warming of 252 1.9°C and an average precipitation decrease of 4.4 mm compared to the period of 1971-2000 (for 253 details see: Falk & Mellert, 2011; Falk & Hempelmann, 2013; Thurm et al., 2018). The maps are 254 available for 32 tree species and provide information on cultivation risk in five categories ranging 255 from very low to very high risk. For 17 of these species or species groups, we also obtained 256 regeneration distribution maps (Table 2). In the case of the genus *Tilia* L., the NFI did not differentiate 257 between Tilia platyphyllos and T. cordata, but cultivation risk maps were available for both. We 258 combined the two maps by transforming the five cultivation risk categories into values ranging from 259 1 to 5 (from very low to very high risk), calculating the mean risk for each grid cell, and back 260 transforming the values into the former categories. If the mean was between risk categories, we 261 chose the lower category.

As a next step, we aggregated the cultivation risk assessment per grid cell by calculating the
percentage of regeneration density at high cultivation risk. To this end, we combined the risk
categories *very high risk* and *high risk* into a *high-risk* category, and the categories *increased risk, low risk* and *very low risk* into a *low-risk* category. The percentage of regeneration at high cultivation risk *R_{high risk}* was calculated as:

$$R_{high\,risk}[\%] = \frac{N_{high\,risk}}{N_{total}} * 100$$

Here, $N_{high\,risk}$ is the regeneration density summed up over the species with high cultivation risk and N_{total} the total regeneration density across all species of the grid cell. We defined \geq 75% of the total regeneration density at high cultivation risk as problematic.

271 Box 1: Bavaria (Germany) – A case study for identifying regeneration gaps.

272	Using Bavaria as an example, we demonstrate the potential use of regeneration indicator maps to
273	identify regeneration gaps and hotspots (Figure 2) and derive recommendations for silvicultural
274	interventions. Bavaria, a federal state in the southeast of Germany, has a forest coverage of 36.9%
275	(Klemmt et al., 2014). This corresponds to 22.8% of Germany's total forest area (Bundesministerium
276	für Ernährung und Landwirtschaft, 2016). Recent climate change induced summer droughts and

subsequent bark beetle outbreaks have led to a loss of tree canopies, especially in Norway spruce
(*Picea abies*) dominated areas (Thonfeld et al., 2022). We chose Bavaria as a case study because
detailed maps of future cultivation risk are available for many tree species, which allowed us to
derive not only the total regeneration density and species richness but also the proportion of
regeneration at high future cultivation risk.

282 For Bavaria, we found a high total regeneration density ($\geq 2,000$ ha⁻¹) in the southern part and 283 towards the eastern and northwestern edges of the state (Figure 2A). Only few regions, amounting to 284 3.5% of the forest area, showed a total regeneration density deficit of <1,000 ha⁻¹. Species richness of 285 the regeneration was generally low (≤ 2 tree species) to intermediate (3-4 species) throughout 286 Bavaria (Figure 2B). Forests with a deficit in species richness covered 50.0% of the Bavarian forest 287 area, mainly in the low mountain ranges. The proportion of regeneration at high future cultivation 288 risk (Figure 2C) was calculated on the basis of 17 species regeneration density maps (Table 2), 289 covering 74.9% of the Bavarian NFI regeneration data and 76.8% of the Bavarian forest area. The 290 proportion of species at high cultivation risk in the regeneration was heterogeneous across Bavaria 291 (Figure 2C). Half of the analysed forest area had a cultivation risk lower than 37.7% (Figure 2D), for 292 instance in the Bavarian Alps (Figure 2C). Regeneration at high risk (i.e. proportions ≥75%) dominated 293 on 25.2% (489,385 ha) of the forest area, e.g. in the northeast. This pattern was mainly driven by 294 Picea abies, amounting to 94.5% of all regeneration densities at high risk (Table S3).

Such spatially resolved results on the quantity and quality of forest regeneration indicate
regeneration gaps and allow for targeted silvicultural measures and incentives that can significantly
contribute to the adaptation of forests to climate change. For example, regions like the Frankenwald
and the Bavarian Alps (Figure 2A) are major hotspots for climate change impacts and adaptation in
Bavarian forests. Severe large-scale disturbances are a significant issue in the Frankenwald (VianaSoto & Senf, 2024), while the Alps are increasingly prone to rockfall due to climate change, making
forests especially valuable for protection (e.g. Hillebrand et al., 2023; Moos et al., 2021). Combining

302 this information with forest regeneration indicators allows priorities to be set for forest 303 management: In the Frankenwald with a notable regeneration gap in species richness and climate-304 adapted tree species (Figure 2B and C), selective cutting of the existing regeneration and planting of 305 additional climate-adapted tree species should be encouraged to increase species richness and 306 reduce future cultivation risk. In contrast, the few local gaps in total regeneration density (Figure 2A) 307 and species richness (Figure 2B) in the Bavarian Alps should be addressed by promoting natural 308 regeneration and planting. Overall, regions with severe regeneration gaps should be prioritized, e.g. 309 the forest area in the Frankenwald.



310

Figure 2: Indicator maps on quantity and quality of forest regeneration for Bavaria: (A) total density, (B) species richness and

312 (C) proportion of regeneration at high cultivation risk. (D) shows the distribution of proportion of regeneration at high

313 cultivation risk. (A) and (B) were derived from regeneration density maps of 22 tree species, while (C) and (D) are based on

314 17 tree species. Maps are available online at https://easi.users.earthengine.app/view/regeneration-maps and available for

download at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict
 accepted national boundaries.

317 Programs used

All calculations were conducted in R v.4.4.1 (R Core Team, 2024). Spatial data processing was carried

319 out using the R-package terra (v.1.7.78; Hijmans, 2024) and sf (v.1.0-16; Pebesma et al., 2024).

320 Results

322

321 Regeneration density models

323 criteria (Table 2), i.e. median pseudo- $R^2 \ge 0.1$ and median relative MAE ≤ 2 from 10-fold spatially

blocked cross-validation. We used these to predict the regeneration density for 78.5% (8,615,918 ha)

From the 43 calibrated species-specific regeneration density models, 22 met the performance

of the German forest area at a resolution of 1 ha. The 22 species represented 74.9% of the

326 regeneration measured within the NFI. We found that, across Germany, the most common tree

327 species within the regeneration were *Fagus sylvatica, Picea abies* and *Prunus serotina* Ehrh. with

mean densities of 1,192, 985 and 349 individuals per hectare, respectively (Table 2). Species with

329 lowest abundance in the regeneration throughout Germany were Quercus rubra L., Sorbus aria (L.)

330 Crantz and *Pinus strobus* L. with average densities of 5, 2, and 1 individual(s) per hectare.

331 Of all 43 calibrated regeneration models, five did not converge and 16 did not meet the performance

332 criteria (total 21; Table 2). Out of these, 15 were rare tree species, with total regeneration density

333 <1% within the German NFI (Table S2). The other six were common tree species *Acer pseudoplatanus*

L., Sorbus aucuparia L., Betula pendula, Quercus petraea (Matt.) Liebl., Populus tremula L. and Prunus

padus L. (Table S2), that nevertheless could not be sufficiently modelled with our approach (Table 2).

336 The median pseudo-R² criterion was the primary factor in determining the model quality, as the

337 median relative MAE criterion was consistently met (Table 2).

338 Table 2: Evaluation and summary statistics of regeneration density models for 43 tree species. The availability of

regeneration density maps (Germany) or cultivation risk maps (only for Bavaria; Falk et al., 2013, 2019) is indicated by a dot

- 340 (available) or a circle (not available). Regeneration density maps were predicted when the model performance criteria of
- 341 median relative MAE ≤ 2 and median pseudo-R² ≥ 0.1 were met, as determined by 10-fold spatially blocked cross-validation.

Species	Model performance		Regeneration density map	Regeneration density [#/ha]		Cultivation risk map availability	
	Median relative MAE	Median pseudo- R ²	(Germany)	Mean	SD	(Bavaria)	
Abies alba	1.02	0.48	٠	167	819	٠	
Abies grandis	1.06	0.07	0			•	
Acer campestre	0.83	0.31	•	18	345	•	
Acer platanoides	0.91	0.12	•	8	154	•	
Acer pseudoplatanus	0.99	-0.01	0			•	
Alnus glutinosa	1.12	0.16	•	23	324	•	
Alnus incana	1.06	0.39	•	84	9122	0	
Betula pendula	1.00	-0.12	0			•	
Betula pubescens	0.05	0.43	•	25	533	0	
Carpinus betulus	0.84	0.20	•	208	1108	•	
Castanea sativa	1.01	0.32	•	1	12	•	
Fagus sylvatica	1.05	0.26	•	1192	1940	•	
Fraxinus excelsior	0.90	0.15	•	329	1900	•	
Larix decidua	0.75	0.06	0			•	
Larix kaempferi	0.30	0.44	•	7	88	•	
Malus sylvestris			0			0	
Picea abies	0.75	0.16	•	985	1572	•	
Picea sitchensis	0.20	0.09	0			0	
Pinus mugo			0			0	
Pinus nigra	0.50	-0.28	0			•	
Pinus strobus	0.47	-0.01	0			0	
Pinus sylvestris	0.33	0.29	•	257	805	•	
Populus alba	0.28	0.08	0			0	
Populus nigra	0.13	0.20	•	120	12213	0	
Populus tremula	0.86	0.07	0			0	
Populus trichocarpa x maximoviczii	0.35	-0.98	0			0	
Populus x canescens	0.06	-0.09	0			0	
Prunus avium	1.00	0.25	•	11	43	•	
Prunus padus	0.54	-0.57	0			0	
Prunus serotina	0.33	0.11	•	349	5338	0	
Pseudotsuga menziesii	0.91	0.21	•	26	101	•	
Pyrus communis			0			•	
Quercus petraea	0.74	0.02	0			•	
Quercus robur	1.06	0.20	•	77	150	•	
Quercus rubra	0.84	0.15	•	5	39	•	
Robinia pseudoacacia	1.09	0.45	•	75	3850	•	
Salix spp.	1.04	0.03	0			0	
Sorbus aria	0.89	0.12	•	2	32	0	
Sorbus aucuparia	0.99	-0.10	0			•	
Sorbus torminalis			0			•	
Taxus baccata			0			0	
Tilia spp.	0.92	0.29	•	38	582	•	
Ulmus spp.	0.60	-0.02	0			•	
All species n = 22				4006	17015.5		

342 Species-specific regeneration maps for Germany

343 The predicted density maps showed distinct patterns in the availability of regeneration for each tree species (Figure 3, for all other tree species maps see Figure S1). For example, the regeneration of 344 Fagus sylvatica was widely distributed with very high abundance in the centre of Germany and lower 345 346 densities towards the east and the western lowlands (Figure 3). Similarly, the regeneration of Picea 347 abies was widely abundant across German forests but showed lower densities (<100 individuals per hectare) towards the northeast. Abies alba Mill. - a less common tree species (mean density of 167 348 349 ha⁻¹; Table 2) that is considered climate-resilient in low mountain ranges - showed a clear north-350 south trend with no occurrence in the northern half of Germany and a gradual increase in 351 regeneration from the centre towards the south. In the South, Abies alba is particularly abundant in 352 low mountain ranges.



353

- 354 Figure 3: Regeneration densities exemplarily shown for three important tree species in Central Europe, i.e. Abies alba,
- 355 Fagus sylvatica and Picea abies in 1 ha grid cells for Germany (for remaining tree species maps see Figure S1). All maps are
- 356 available online at https://easi.users.earthengine.app/view/regeneration-maps and available for download at
- 357 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted
- 358 national boundaries.

359 Indicators of total quantity and quality of forest regeneration

360 The quantity of regeneration, evaluated as the total regeneration density based on 22 tree species, 361 showed an average of 4,006 individuals per hectare (Table 2). A clear trend of insufficient (0-1,000 362 ha⁻¹) and intermediate (1,000-2,000 ha⁻¹) total regeneration densities in parts of Mid and North 363 Germany was visible (Figure 4, for continuous density colour scale see Figure S2), whereas the South 364 mainly displayed sufficient regeneration ($\geq 2,000$ ha⁻¹). Overall, we found 60.1% of the predicted 365 forest area to have sufficient, 26.4% of intermediate and 13.4% of insufficient regeneration densities. 366 As part of the quality assessment of the regeneration, we evaluated regeneration species richness 367 (Figure 5, for continuous species richness colour scale see Figure S3), which was generally low with 368 an average of 2.8 species per hectare across Germany. A total of 47.1% of the predicted forest area included insufficient (≤2 species) number of tree species in the regeneration (Figure 5B), while 43.5% 369 370 of the area contained intermediate species numbers (3-4 species) and 9.4% contained sufficient 371 species richness (\geq 5 species). Forests that are particularly species rich in the regeneration, i.e. \geq 5 372 species, were found towards the northeast (Figure 5A) and are otherwise restricted to local hotspots 373 across Germany. Forests with a species richness ≤ 2 were particularly common in low mountain 374 ranges. 375 Regeneration quality was additionally assessed as the future suitability of tree species in the

376 regeneration. We showcase this – and the identification of regeneration gaps and hotspots and
377 potential management strategies more generally – using the example of the German federal state
378 Bavaria (Box 1).





- 380 Figure 4: Spatial patterns of total regeneration density (ha⁻¹) for Germany based on 22 tree species. Colour categories
- describe insufficient (0-1,000 ha⁻¹), intermediate (1,000-2,000 ha⁻¹) and sufficient (≥2,000 ha⁻¹) total regeneration densities
- 382 (for continuous colour scale see Figure S2). Map is available online at
- 383 https://easi.users.earthengine.app/view/regeneration-maps and available for download at
- 384 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted
- ational boundaries.



386

387 Figure 5: Regeneration tree species richness for the forest area of Germany based on 22 tree species. The map (A) shows

388 spatial patterns, and the histogram (B) describes the distribution of species richness values. Colour categories describe

insufficient (1-2), intermediate (3-4) and sufficient (≥5) regeneration species richness (for continuous colour scale see Figure

- 390 S3). We considered a species present in a 1 ha-grid cell if its density was at least 5% of the total regeneration density. Map
- 391 is available online at https://easi.users.earthengine.app/view/regeneration-maps and available for download at
- 392 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted
- anational boundaries.

394 Discussion

Our results demonstrate the potential to predict forest regeneration density at high spatial resolution from species-specific models calibrated with NFI regeneration data. Using the regeneration density maps predicted for Germany, we evaluated indicators of regeneration quantity and quality, defined here as total regeneration density, species richness and proportion of climate-adapted tree species. The indicators revealed regional gaps and hotspots in forest regeneration.

400 Predicting forest regeneration at large spatial scale

401 We successfully predicted forest regeneration density for a large part of the modelled tree species in 402 Central Europe. This contrasts with previous models of forest regeneration. These included only few 403 species (Hasenauer et al., 2000; Kolo et al., 2017), covered only small environmental gradients 404 (Hasenauer et al., 2000) and achieved low predictive accuracy at high spatial resolution because of 405 only few environmental predictors (Zhu et al., 2014). Previous models were therefore not suited to 406 reliably predict community composition and diversity across large environmental gradients. Even 407 more, none of these studies had produced forest regeneration maps at regional or national scales 408 that could be used to assess the quantity and quality of regeneration. 409 The model approach of our study distinguishes itself by successfully cross-validating 22 of the 43 tree

410 species models (Table 2). This is likely due to the large environmental gradients covered in the NFI

- 411 data, the large number of environmental predictors (i.e. n = 44), partly at high spatial resolution, and
- the flexibility of our modelling approach (i.e. GAMs). We conclude that even though forest
- regeneration is subject to a variety of stochastic processes (Price et al., 2001; Shoemaker et al., 2020)
- 414 and is measured on small sampling plots (i.e. 12.57 m²), there is enough signal in local regeneration

415 densities to successfully model and predict the regional availability of forest regeneration at large416 spatial scales.

417 Tree species coverage of the regeneration models

418 The predicted regeneration density maps (Figure 3 and Figure S2) cover a major part, i.e. 74.9%, of 419 the regeneration sampled within the German NFI. Therefore, our indicators derived from the 420 regeneration maps draw a reliable picture of the dominant forest regeneration state and its gaps. 421 Nevertheless, it would be desirable to expand the range of tree species modelled, especially since a 422 large species pool and rare species will play a greater role as climate change progresses (Huth et al., 423 2025). In this study, we could not successfully calibrate regeneration models or did not reliably 424 predict observed regeneration densities for 21 tree species (Table 2). Out of these, 15 species are 425 rare and occur at average densities <1% in the German NFI regeneration dataset (Table S2). Because 426 the NFI sample plots for regeneration are small, rare species are not well covered, and the amount of 427 data is not sufficient to uncover the environmental preferences of these tree species and to calibrate 428 predictive regeneration models. To improve data availability for these species, information including 429 regeneration data from previous German NFI surveys, other European NFIs or local inventories could 430 be used in future studies.

In addition to rare species, we could also not reliably predict the regeneration density for more generalist species *Acer pseudoplatanus, Betula pendula*, and *Sorbus aucuparia*. These have wide realized niches and are found across large environmental gradients (Caudullo et al., 2016). This may have made it difficult to relate the regeneration densities of these species to the environmental predictors available to us. As another strategy to predict regeneration density for more species in the future, models could include even more predictors to better reflect environmental niches.

437 Predictors of forest regeneration

438 Our regeneration models were calibrated using 44 predictive variables describing the environment

439 with respect to topography, soil, microclimate, macroclimate, stand structure and spatial patterns

- 440 (Table 1). Previous studies have related forest regeneration to similar environmental variables, such
- 441 as elevation (Kolo et al., 2017; Kupferschmid et al., 2019; Thom et al., 2023), soil texture (Kolo et al.,
- 442 2017), mean annual temperature (Harris et al., 2024; Kolo et al., 2017; König et al., 2025;
- 443 Kupferschmid et al., 2019; Vayreda et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2014), conspecific basal area (Axer et al.,
- 444 2021; Martini et al., 2024; Zhu et al., 2014) and microclimatic variables (Caron et al., 2021; Thom et
- 445 al., 2023). However, it has been shown that forest regeneration density is also related to other
- 446 predictors such as browsing intensity (Axer et al., 2021; Kupferschmid et al., 2019; Martini et al.,
- 447 2024; Vayreda et al., 2013), understory light availability (Harris et al., 2024; Martini et al., 2024) or
- silvicultural management and ownership (Kolo et al., 2017).
- 449 We could not account for these additional predictors in our forest regeneration maps because they
- 450 are not (yet) available as spatial datasets for the entire German forest area (e.g. understory light
- 451 availability or silvicultural management) or only available at low spatial resolution and not
- 452 homogenized across federal states (e.g. browsing intensity). We consider it promising to evaluate
- 453 how much these additional predictors can contribute to the predictability of forest regeneration, and
- 454 to invest in datasets for these predictors with better spatial coverage in case of considerably
- 455 improved predictions. Although our approach already accounts for a high level of flexibility (i.e.
- 456 GAM), the complexity of environmental relationships could be further enhanced by using machine
- 457 learning algorithms (Pichler & Hartig, 2023), in addition to expanding model predictors (Xu et al.,

458 2025).

459 Application of regeneration density and indicator maps

460 Creating species-specific regeneration density maps was motivated by the potential to identify

461 regional gaps and hotspots in regeneration quantity and quality thus to assess the potential

462 contribution of forest regeneration to a more resilient next forest generation. To this end, we used 463 three indicators that are widely used in forest management and planning: total regeneration density, 464 species richness and proportion of climate-adapted tree species (Cerioni et al., 2024; König et al., 465 2022). Typically, these indicators are assessed for individual stands by local forest practitioners and 466 managers, but not at larger scales. Our regeneration indicator maps demonstrate the potential to 467 monitor these indicators at national scales and to identify regional differences in forest regeneration.

468 For Germany, we found that regeneration gaps are small in terms of total regeneration density 469 (Figure 4) but are of concern regarding species richness, with a deficit for almost half of the German 470 forest area (Figure 5). In addition, one quarter of the forest area in Bavaria is affected by a lack of 471 climate-adapted tree species (Figure 2D). While the forest regeneration indicator maps cannot 472 replace a local, on-site assessment of regeneration for stand level silvicultural decisions, they can 473 provide an indication of potential regeneration gaps at the regional scale (Box 1). Such gaps can help 474 forest policymakers identify potential priority areas and target actions to reduce future risks, increase 475 species richness and regeneration density through selective cutting, promoting natural regeneration, 476 or planting climate-adapted tree species. These actions can be implemented through direct hands-on 477 management or through incentives for silvicultural practices that promote regeneration (Huth et al., 478 2025).

Beyond practical applications, our species-specific regeneration density maps can be used to improve
dynamic forest models, where the importance of regeneration processes is increasingly recognized
(e.g. Díaz-Yáñez et al., 2024; Hanbury-Brown et al., 2022; König et al., 2025). Incorporating
comprehensive information on regeneration availability, especially when including information of
species composition and spatial variability, can limit bias and increase the robustness of dynamic
models (Díaz-Yáñez et al., 2024). This has a high potential to make more reliable predictions of stand
development trajectories and potential future stands, providing valuable information for

- 486 policymakers and forest managers. In turn, the incorporation of regeneration data into dynamic
- 487 forest models also allows for the evaluation of different regeneration management strategies.

488 Conclusions

489 This study demonstrates the potential of using NFI regeneration data to predict species-specific 490 regeneration densities at high spatial resolution, from which indicators of regeneration quantity and 491 quality can be derived. The resulting maps of regeneration indicators help to identify regional gaps in 492 total regeneration density, species richness, and climate-adapted species composition. Consequently, 493 our approach allows to estimate whether regeneration can secure future forests and maintain their 494 multifunctionality, which is particularly important in the context of climate change and increased 495 disturbances (Cerioni et al., 2024). We strongly encourage the evaluation of regeneration patterns 496 across Europe and the monitoring of changes in forest regeneration between two consecutive 497 inventories. To achieve such continuous European forest regeneration monitoring, it is essential to 498 prioritize homogenization of forest inventory data and suitable environmental predictor datasets.

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- 513 Leonie Gass: Conceptualization (equal), data curation (lead), formal analysis (lead), methodology
- 514 (equal), project administration (supporting), visualization (lead), writing original draft preparation
- 515 (lead), writing review & editing (equal).
- 516 Lisa Hülsmann: Conceptualization (equal), formal analysis (supporting), funding acquisition (lead),
- 517 methodology (equal), project administration (lead), resources (lead), supervision (lead), visualization
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Supplementary Material

Table S1: Spatial autocorrelation of each calibrated model and set up for spatially blocked cross-validation. Spatial autocorrelation of the model was assessed by using the R-package DHARMa (Hartig, 2022) and spatial autocorrelation range of the response was calculated with the package blockCV (Valavi et al., 2019, 2024).

Species	Model spatial autocorrelation		Spatially blocked cross-validation			
	Observed Morans I	p-valu	e	Spatial autocorrelation range [m]	Used spatial range [m]	Block number
Abies alba	-0.00019	0.32	n.s.	2,502	2,502	16,616
Abies grandis	-0.00030	0.08	n.s.	5,682	5,683	8,645
Acer campestre	-0.00013	0.60	n.s.	39,754	39,754	303
Acer platanoides	-0.00028	0.10	n.s.	71,751	71,752	108
Acer pseudoplatanus	-0.00017	0.42	n.s.	24,913	24,914	732
Alnus glutinosa	-0.00012	0.66	n.s.	41,710	41,710	279
Alnus incana	-0.00021	0.25	n.s.	9,450	9,450	4,163
Betula pendula	-0.00035	0.03	*	13,295,247	300,000	11
Betula pubescens	-0.00035	0.03	*	3,078,096	300,000	11
Carpinus betulus	0.00003	0.54	n.s.	31,648	31,649	465
Castanea sativa	-0.00014	0.53	n.s.	531	532	18,181
Fagus sylvatica	-0.00003	0.87	n.s.	51,183	51,184	191
Fraxinus excelsior	-0.00030	0.07	n.s.	50,850	50,851	193
Larix decidua	-0.00032	0.05	n.s.	224,055	224,056	16
Larix kaempferi	-0.00009	0.80	n.s.	20,003,371	300,000	11
Malus sylvestris						
Picea abies	-0.00004	0.92	n.s.	104,926	104,927	58
Picea sitchensis	-0.00029	0.08	n.s.	466,836	300,000	11
Pinus mugo						
Pinus nigra	-0.00015	0.50	n.s.	15,141	15,142	1,822
Pinus strobus	-0.00024	0.18	n.s.	6,477,058	300,000	11
Pinus sylvestris	-0.00007	0.89	n.s.	110,621	110,621	52
Populus alba	0.00006	0.42	n.s.	10,705	10,706	3,368
Populus nigra	-0.00017	0.41	n.s.	42,140	42,141	269
Populus tremula	-0.00015	0.50	n.s.	74,889	74,890	99
Populus trichocarpa x maximoviczii	-0.00011	0.66	n.s.	1,854,565	300,000	11
Populus x canescens	-0.00008	0.88	n.s.	47,026	47,026	220
Prunus avium	-0.00002	0.82	n.s.	29,395	29,395	535
Prunus padus	-0.00020	0.29	n.s.	17,820	17,821	1,367
Prunus serotina	-0.00011	0.67	n.s.	103,071	103,072	59
Pseudotsuga menziesii	-0.00012	0.63	n.s.	104,926	104,927	58
Pyrus communis						
Quercus petraea	-0.00035	0.03	*	240,624	240,625	15
Quercus robur	-0.00014	0.53	n.s.	77,579	77,580	94
Quercus rubra	-0.00018	0.36	n.s.	10,775	10,776	3,348
Robinia pseudoacacia	-0.00017	0.39	n.s.	105,582	105,583	56
Salix spp.	-0.00024	0.18	n.s.	26,742	26,742	640
Sorbus aria	-0.00012	0.64	n.s.	10,119	10,120	3,721
Sorbus aucuparia	-0.00012	0.63	n.s.	15,991,026	300,000	11
Sorbus torminalis						
Taxus baccata						
Tilia spp.	-0.00038	0.02	*	30,387	30,388	500
Ulmus spp.	-0.00007	0.94	n.s.	27,193	27,193	616

Table S2: Forest regeneration densities per tree species from the German national forest inventory of 2012. The availability of predicted regeneration density maps is indicated by a dot (available) or a circle (not available).

Species	Density proportion [%]	Mean [#/ha]	SD [#/ha]	Map availability
Fagus sylvatica	29.9	1052	5085	•
Picea abies	16.9	594	3546	•
Acer pseudoplatanus	8.7	305	2481	0
Fraxinus excelsior	7.0	245	2121	•
Sorbus aucuparia	6.8	240	1617	0
Carpinus betulus	4.2	148	1686	•
Betula pendula	4.0	140	1668	0
Pinus sylvestris	3.8	132	1380	•
Prunus serotina	3.5	124	1467	•
Abies alba	2.3	81	931	•
Quercus robur	1.6	56	582	•
Quercus petraea	1.4	48	1022	0
Populus tremula	1.2	41	804	0
Prunus padus	1.1	40	849	0
Tilia spp.	0.9	32	511	•
Salix spp.	0.8	29	637	0
Acer campestre	0.6	22	407	•
Acer platanoides	0.6	22	593	•
Pseudotsuga menziesii	0.6	21	569	•
Alnus glutinosa	0.6	20	477	•
Alnus incana	0.6	19	651	•
Ulmus spp.	0.5	19	366	0
Prunus avium	0.5	19	341	•
Betula pubescens	0.4	15	437	•
Quercus rubra	0.4	13	364	•
Robinia pseudoacacia	0.3	9	243	•
Larix decidua	0.1	5	126	0
Sorbus aria	0.1	4	143	•
Pinus strobus	<0.1	3	131	0
Larix kaempferi	<0.1	3	108	•
Picea sitchensis	<0.1	2	126	0
Pinus mugo	<0.1	2	147	0
Populus nigra	<0.1	2	164	•
Populus trichocarpa x	<0.1	2	226	
maximoviczii				0
Castanea sativa	<0.1	2	94	•
Sorbus torminalis	<0.1	2	76	0
Pinus nigra	<0.1	1	77	0
Populus x canescens	<0.1	1	70	0
Pyrus communis	<0.1	1	38	0
Malus sylvestris	<0.1	0	24	0
Abies grandis	<0.1	0	30	0
Taxus baccata	<0.1	0	19	0
Populus alba	<0.1	0	37	0
Sorbus domestica	0.0	0	0	0

Table S3: Proportion of regeneration in Bavaria at high cultivation risk for 17 tree species.

	Regeneration at high
	cultivation risk
Species	[%]
Abies alba	0.49
Acer campestre	<0.01
Acer platanoides	<0.01
Alnus glutinosa	0.26
Carpinus betulus	<0.01
Castanea sativa	<0.01
Fagus sylvatica	<0.01
Fraxinus excelsior	<0.01
Larix kaempferi	<0.01
Picea abies	94.48
Pinus sylvestris	4.52
Prunus avium	0.19
Pseudotsuga menziesii	0.01
Quercus robur	<0.01
Quercus rubra	0.02
Robinia pseudoacacia	<0.01
Tilia spp.	<0.01



Figure S1: Total regeneration density maps of remaining tree species not displayed in **Error! Reference source not found.**. Regeneration density scale was cut off at the 99% percentile across all species map values (1,186 ha⁻¹). All maps are available online at https://easi.users.earthengine.app/view/regeneration-maps and available for download at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15550864. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted national boundaries.



Figure S2: Spatial patterns of total regeneration density (ha⁻¹) for Germany based on 22 tree species. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted national boundaries.



Figure S3: Regeneration tree species richness for the forest area of Germany based on 22 tree species. The map (A) shows spatial patterns, and the histogram (B) describes the distribution of species richness occurrence. We considered a species present in a 1 ha-grid cell if its density was at least 5% of the total regeneration density. Map lines delineate study areas and do not necessarily depict accepted national boundaries.



Expected

Model predictions (rank transformed)

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1.0

0.8



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.944







Residual vs. predicted





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.744



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.952





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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 1



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DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.944



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Quercus robur





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 1



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Quercus rubra



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.952





Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.816



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 1



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.976
Larix decidua



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.968

Larix kaempferi



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.952



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.984

Pinus strobus



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.672



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.36

Pinus nigra



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Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.44

Picea abies



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.88



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.72

Abies alba



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 1

Abies grandis



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.872



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DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.992



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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.544


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Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.576



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation







DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.912



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DHARMa residual

Populus trichocarpa.x.maximoviczii



Expected

Model predictions (rank transformed)





DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation







DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)





DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.976



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Alnus incana



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)





DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation






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DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.984



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation



Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.912



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation

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Prunus padus



Expected

Observed

Model predictions (rank transformed)



Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.776



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 0.512



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation





Simulated values, red line = fitted model. p-value (two.sided) = 1



DHARMa Moran's I test for distance-based autocorrelation