

TITLE:

Effects of selective logging on tree species diversity and composition of Bornean tropical rain forests at different spatial scales

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Abstract Reduced-impact logging (RIL) is known to be beneficial in 26 biodiversity conservation, but its effects on tree diversity remain unknown. 27 Pattern of tree diversity following disturbance usually varies with spatial 28 29 scale of sampling (i.e. plot size). We examined the impacts of RIL on species 30 richness and community composition of tree species at different spatial scales, and the scale (plot size) dependency of the two metrics; species richness vs. 31 community similarity. One 2-ha and three to four 0.2-ha plots were 32 established in each of primary, RIL and conventionally logged (CL) forest in 33 Sabah, Malaysia. Species richness (the number of species per unit number of 34 stems) was higher in the RIL than in the CL forest at both scales. The 35 relationship between species richness and logging intensity varied with plot 36 37 size. Species richness was greater in the RIL than in the primary forest at the 2-ha scale, while it was similar between the two forests at 0.2-ha scale. 38 Similarly, species richness in the CL forest demonstrated a greater value at 39 40 the 2-ha scale than at the 0.2-ha scale. Greater species richness in the two logged forests at the 2-ha scale is attributable to a greater probability of 41 42 encountering the species-rich, small patches that are distributed heterogeneously. Community composition of the RIL forest more resembled 43 that of the primary forest than that of the CL forest, regardless of plot size. 44 Accordingly, species richness is a scale-dependent metric, while community 45 similarity is a more robust metric to indicate the response of tree assemblage 46 47 to anthropogenic disturbance.

48

Keywords Borneo; forest heterogeneity; non-metric multi-dimensional
 scaling (NMDS); PERMANOVA; species-accumulation curves

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51 Introduction

Forests degraded due to anthropogenic disturbances are rapidly expanding 52 in area in the tropics (Asner et al. 2005; Wright 2005). Degraded tropical 53 54 forests usually have higher species richness than monocultural plantations and agricultural lands (Gibson et al. 2011, Lawton et al. 1998). On the other 55 hand, strictly protected areas that are expected to conserve biodiversity are 56 rather limited in area (Rodrigues et al. 2004), leading to a growing interest 57 in the conservation value of degraded tropical forests (Berry et al. 2010, 58 Edwards et al. 2010). A key driver of forest degradation in Southeast Asian 59 tropics is unregulated selective logging, which often damages more than 60 50% of the original forest biomass, and causes surface-soil disturbance 61 (Bertault and Sist 1997; Cannon et al. 1994; Pinard and Putz 1996; Putz et 62 al. 2008a; Sist et al. 1998). Understanding the responses of biodiversity to 63 selective logging in the tropics is crucial for predicting and managing 64 65 biodiversity in our rapidly changing global environment.

To mitigate the detrimental impacts of selective logging on forests, 66 67 "reduced-impact logging" (RIL) has recently been applied to some of natural production forests in the tropics (Kleine and Heuveldop 1993; Lagan 68 et al. 2007; Putz et al. 2008a). RIL is a modification of selective logging, 69 including pre-harvest inventory, mapping of all canopy trees, directional 70 felling, liana cutting and planning of skid trails, log decks and roads. In 71 72 comparison with unregulated conventional logging (CL), RIL is beneficial 73 not only in maintaining future crop trees (Peña-Claros et al. 2008; Rockwell 74 et al. 2007) and forest biomass (Bertault and Sist 1997; Johns et al. 1996; 75 Miller et al. 2011; Pinard and Putz 1996; Putz et al. 2008b; Sist et al. 1998),

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but also in biological diversity, such as dung beetles (Davis 2000), flying 76 insects (Akutsu et al. 2007), soil macrofauna (Hasegawa et al. 2006) and 77 forest-dwelling vertebrates (Imai et al. 2009). Many other taxa, such as ants, 78 79 arachnids, bats, birds, fishes and animals, also are not adversely affected by 80 RIL (Azevedo-Ramos et al. 2006; Bicknell and Peres 2010; Castro-Arellano et al. 2007; Dias et al. 2010; Edwards et al. 2012; Felton et al. 2008; Presley 81 et al. 2008; Samejima et al. 2012; Wunderle et al. 2006). However, the 82 effects of RIL on tree species diversity of tropical rain forests remain 83 largely unknown, despite that the diversity of trees is fundamental to the 84 structure and functions of the forests. The diversity of trees may also 85 determine the diversity of other taxonomic groups, because trees provide 86 87 resources and habitat structure for dependent species.

To date, only three studies have examined the effects of RIL on tree 88 species diversity (Foody and Cutler 2003; Medjibe et al. 2011; Webb and 89 90 Peralta 1998). However, two studies compared tree diversity of RIL with that of primary forest (Medjibe et al. 2011; Webb and Peralta 1998), and 91 92 only one study compared tree diversity of RIL with that of both primary and 93 CL forest by using quite a small (0.05 ha in area) plot (Foody and Cutler 2003). Given that widespread commercial logging of high-value timber in 94 the tropics still rely mainly upon conventional techniques (Blaser et al. 95 2011), comparison of logging impacts on tree diversity between RIL and CL 96 is urgently needed. 97

98 Tree species richness (number of tree species at a single site) in 99 selectively logged forests may vary depending on the spatial scale of 100 sampling (Dumbrell et al. 2008; Hamer and Hill 2000; Hill and Hamer

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2004). Selectively logged forests consist of a mosaic of patches affected by 101 102 different intensities of disturbance, such as remnant stands, gaps due to 103 harvesting and road construction, and regenerating patches with varying 104 successional stages. A small plot can encounter only one or a few patch 105 types within a heterogeneous logged-over forest. On the other hand, a large plot is potentially able to encounter all different patch types within the 106 forest. Because logging creates new habitats for the species not found in a 107 108 primary forest, deploying a large plot overestimates species richness in a 109 logged-over forest. Accordingly, plot size, which determines the number of different patch types encountered in a given area, can in turn affect species 110 richness in that area. However, previous studies assessing tree species 111 112 richness in selectively logged forests have used either small (mostly less than 0.2 ha in area) or large plots (1 ha in area in a few studies; Berry et al. 113 2008; Chua et al. 1998; Kirika et al. 2010; Medjibe et al. 2011; Ouédraogo 114 115 et al. 2011, Souza et al. 2012). Deploying both small and large plots is necessary to reliable evaluation of logging impacts on tree species richness. 116

117 The ideal metric of biodiversity must be independent of spatial scale 118 of sampling (Chazdon et al. 1998). Sheil and Burslem (2003) reported that tree species richness in tropical forests following habitat disturbance varied 119 with spatial scale. On the other hand, community similarity (difference of 120 community composition between sites) is receiving increasing attention as a 121 122 useful metric to assess the effects of forest managements on biodiversity, 123 rather than species richness (Barlow et al. 2007; Su et al. 2004). Despite 124 that, no assessment of the scale-dependent response of tree community similarity to habitat disturbance has yet been conducted. Understanding the 125

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scale dependency of the two major metrics following disturbance can
improve the interpretation of the outcome of tropical biodiversity studies,
in which sampling size and evaluation metrics largely differ among
different studies.

We established one 2-ha and three to four 0.2-ha plots in each of primary, RIL and CL forest in Bornean lowland tropical rain forests to examine the effects of RIL on tree species richness and composition at different spatial scales. We also compared the scale (plot size) dependency of the two metrics (species richness vs. community similarity) to consider which metric is more appropriate for evaluation of the forest-management effects on tropical biodiversity.

137

138 Material and methods

139 Study site

This study was carried out in Deramakot Forest Reserve and Tangkulap Forest
Reserve in Sabah, Malaysia (5°14-30'N, 117°11-36'E). The mean annual
temperature of the area is 27°C and the mean annual precipitation is *c*. 3500
mm, with little seasonal variation. The region is characterized by Tertiary
sedimentary rocks. The altitude in the reserves is between 20 and 300 m asl.
The vegetation is a mixed dipterocarp lowland tropical rain forest. Deramakot
(551 km²) and Tangkulap (275 km²) are located adjacent to each other.

Deramakot and Tangkulap were originally licensed for logging starting in 1956 and the 1970s, respectively. Subsequently, conventional logging commenced there (Sabah Forestry Department 2005). During 1959-1968, timber, with a mean volume of 109 m³/ha, was harvested in

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151 Deramakot (Sabah Forestry Department 2005). In 1989, Deramakot was 152 chosen by the Sabah State Government as a model site to develop a sustainable forest management system and all logging activities were 153 154 suspended thereafter. A new management system with RIL was implemented 155 in 1995. Deramakot is now divided into 135 compartments of varying sizes (approx. 500 ha each), and about two to four compartments are harvested 156 annually using RIL with a planned rotation period of 40 yr (Lagan et al. 2007). 157 158 17 of these compartments (3,473 ha in area) are reserved for conservation (not to produce logs). 159

Based on the guidelines of RIL, all harvestable trees must be measured 160 before harvesting and located on a detailed map and appropriate routes for 161 162 skidders are designed to minimize the damage to non-target trees. The trees harvested are limited to those in the range of 60-120 cm diameter at breast 163 height (dbh), and trees that are near streams, on steep terrain, with hollows, 164 165 or of fruiting species for wildlife are excluded from harvesting. A compartment will be harvested only when the harvestable timbers exceed 25 166 m^{3} /ha. Tangling lianas are cut before harvesting and targeted trees are 167 168 harvested with a directional felling technique. Harvesting and road construction cease during periods of heavy rainfall to reduce soil erosion. 169 Gap size of each harvesting must be less than 0.1 ha. Dipterocarpaceae is one 170 of the major targeted tree families for harvesting. In Deramakot, a total of 171 24,934 trees (2.36 trees /ha) with a volume of 145,399 m^3 (13.74 m^3 /ha) were 172 harvested during 1995-2006 (Samejima et al. 2012). 173

Tangkulap Forest Reserve was repeatedly logged using a conventional
logging technique until 2001, when the government suspended all logging

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176 activities. There are no reliable statistics for the log production in Tangkulap. According to the analysis of logging history in the two reserves using Landsat 177 satellite data (Imai et al. 2009), much heavier logging have occurred in 178 179 greater areas in Tangkulap compared with Deramakot during 1985-2002. This 180 difference of degradation status between Deramakot and Tangkulap resulted from the differences of the two logging methods (i.e. RIL and CL) and 181 182 harvested volume between the two reserves. We used these forests as a model 183 site to examine the impacts of RIL on species richness and community composition of tree species at different spatial scales, and the scale (plot size) 184 dependency of the two metrics; species richness vs. community similarity. 185

186

187 Vegetation survey

Eleven research plots of 0.2 ha were established in Deramakot and Tangkulap 188 during May 2003-March 2005 (Seino et al. 2006). In Deramakot, four plots 189 190 were established in a primary forest located within the conservation area. Conventional logging method has been applied even in the current 191 192 conservation area until the 1980s, and there are still evidences of the past 193 logging activities (e.g. old bulldozer paths, old stumps, and absence of emergent trees) in the vicinity of our plots. However, we considered our four 194 plots are in unlogged patches of primary forest, because of the absence of any 195 evidence of past logging activities within the plots. In Deramakot, we also set 196 up four plots in the forest logged by RIL during 1995-2000. In Tangkulap, 197 198 three plots logged by CL were established. The three CL plots were once 199 logged before 1988, and again logged during 1995-1999, based on the observation of Landsat scenes (Aoyagi R. pers. comm.). Thus, the two logged 200

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forests were logged during the similar period; RIL and CL forest were logged 201 5-13 and 5-10 yr before our investigation, respectively. Eleven 0.2-ha plots 202 203 were laid out primarily as 100×20 m. Three out of the four plots in primary 204 forest and one out of the three plots in CL forest were laid out as 50×40 m, because of the limited availability of gentle topography. Mean (± SD) 205 distances among the 0.2-ha plots are 435 ± 209 , 1130 ± 646 and 756 ± 175 m 206 for primary, RIL and CL forest, respectively. During November 207 208 2006-February 2008, we enlarged one representative 0.2-ha RIL plot and one 209 representative 0.2-ha CL plot to 2 ha in area $(200 \times 100 \text{ m})$. We additionally established a new 2-ha plot in primary forest, because the four 0.2-ha primary 210 plots are in small patches of residual forest and therefore cannot be enlarged 211 212 without including degraded patches. Each plot consists of 10×10 -m subplots. All trees ≥ 10 cm dbh were measured in each plot. We also 213 established a hundred 5×5 -m plots within a 2-ha plot (allocated alternately 214 to each 10×10 -m subplot), and measured dbh of small trees with 5-10 cm 215 216 dbh. Buttressed trees were measured at well above (c. 50 cm) protrusions. 217 All trees were identified by botanical experts of the Herbarium, Forest 218 Research Centre, Sabah Forestry Department, Sandakan. Voucher specimens were collected from the trees that could not be identified in situ. Specimens 219 taken were compared with herbarium collections. Samples that could not be 220 identified to species were distinguished as morphospecies. 221

Plot shape may affect tree species richness, because a rectangular plot may sample a greater number of species than a square plot of the same area (Condit et al. 1996). However, when we tested the effects of plot shape $(100 \times 20 \text{ m vs. } 50 \times 40 \text{ m})$ using subplots within a 2-ha plot, the mean

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number of tree species ≥ 10 cm dbh did not significantly differ between ten 100 × 20-m subplots and ten 50 × 40-m subplots (Student's *t*-test, P > 0.5for all, only 1.1-1.9 species greater in 100 × 20-m subplots). This is probably because the aspect ratio of our study plots was relatively low (only from 1.25 (50 × 40 m) to 5 (100 × 20 m)). We therefore suggest that the use of different plot shapes does not affect tree species richness in our study.

233

234 Data analysis

235 Above-ground biomass

Above-ground biomass (AGB) was estimated according to the allometric
equation obtained by Chave et al. (2005) as:

AGB = $\rho \times \exp(-1.499 + 2.148 \ln(D) + 0.207 (\ln(D))^2 - 0.0281 (\ln(D))^3)$ 238 where D is dbh (cm) and ρ is the wood-specific gravity (g/cm³). We 239 obtained the wood-specific gravity ρ for the observed species/genera from 240 various sources (Lemmens et al. 1995; Oey 1951; Soerianegara and 241 242 Lemmens 1993; Sosef et al. 1998). In cases, where a range of wood density values were reported, we used a median value. Where wood density data 243 were unavailable for a species, the average across all species in that genus 244 was applied (see Baker et al. 2004; Slik 2006). In the few cases, where trees 245 could not be identified at the genus level or where no literature record was 246 available, we used the mean wood specific gravity of that plot. 247

248

249 Forest heterogeneity

250 To evaluate the forest heterogeneity within a 2-ha plot in each forest type,

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we calculated a commonly-used measure of β-diversity (Whittaker 1960)
within a 2-ha plot:

 $253 \qquad \beta = \gamma / \alpha$

We calculated the number of species at the scale of 40×50 m within each of the 2-ha plots (i.e. ten 0.2-ha subplots by sequentially shifting 40×50 -m quadrat per 2-ha plot), and obtained β by dividing the total number of species in each 2-ha plot (γ) by the mean number of species per 0.2-ha subplots (α).

259

260 Community similarity

We tested the differences in tree community composition among forest types 261 262 using ordinations and permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA; Anderson 2001). The Chao dissimilarity (distance) 263 function and the relative basal area of each species in eleven 0.2-ha plots (n264 265 = 11) and three 2-ha plots separated at the scale of 40×50 m within each of the 2-ha plots (n = 30) were used to calculate the distance matrix. The 266 267 PERMANOVA used the "adonis" procedure in the vegan package in R. Ordinations were plotted with non-metric multidimensional scaling 268 (NMDS) using the vegan's "metaMDS" procedure. 269

270

271 Species richness

We estimated the number of tree species by using rarefaction, which is used to calculate the number of species expected in a subsample selected at random from a total sample (Gotelli and Colwell 2001; Magurran 2004). We ran 100 randomizations using the data of the number of trees ≥ 10 cm dbh for



each species at 10×10 -m subplots by EstimateS ver. 8 (available online at 276 http://viceroy.eeb.uconn.edu/estimates) to produce species-area curves. The 277 species-individual curves were obtained by converting the cumulative area 278 279 to cumulative numbers of individuals. Estimated number of species for 70 280 stems in the 0.2-ha plots and for 850 stems in the 2-ha plots were separately calculated by interpolation from the species-individual curves; 70 and 850 281 were the number of individuals in the site with the smallest total number of 282 individuals at each plot size. 283

Differences in vegetation properties (stem density, basal area, AGB, observed and estimated number of species) among forest types were tested by an analysis of variance (ANOVA). When the ANOVA *P* value was < 0.05, the Tukey-Kramer *post hoc* test was performed to determine which pairs of means differ significantly.

289

290 Scale dependency of the two metrics

To examine the scale dependency of the two metrics, we tested which 291 292 metrics (species richness and community similarity) better correlated with 293 AGB at both 0.2-ha and 2-ha scales. Estimated AGB in each plot was considered as a surrogate of the degree of forest degradation. Estimated 294 number of species in each plot was used as an index of species richness, 295 because it can compare expected species richness between data of different 296 297 sample sizes (Gotelli and Colwell 2001; Magurran 2004). NMDS axis 1 298 score in each plot was used as an index of community similarity.

299 Unfortunately, we established only one 2-ha plot per forest type due 300 to impenetrability in our study site. However, the lack of replicates is not



301 critical in this analysis because we applied a linear model.

302

303 **RESULTS**

304 Forest structure

Stem density in 0.2-ha plots tended to be lower in CL than in the other two forests (P < 0.1), but did not differ between primary and RIL forest (Table 1). Stem density in 2-ha plots decreased with increasing logging intensity (Table 1). Densities of trees ≥ 60 cm dbh in 0.2-ha plots and trees with 5-10 cm dbh in 2-ha plots were lower in CL than in the other two forests (Fig. 1, P < 0.05 for both).

In 0.2-ha plots, AGB, maximum dbh and total basal area were lower in CL than in the other two forests, but did not differ between primary and RIL forest (Table 1). These structural properties showed a similar pattern also in 2-ha plots to that shown in 0.2-ha plots.

315

316 Community similarity and forest heterogeneity

317 Dipterocarp species dominate primary and RIL forest, while pioneer species (mostly *Macaranga* spp.) were abundant in CL forest (Table 1). Community 318 composition consistently differed between CL and the other two forests at 319 both 0.2-ha (PERMANOVA, $P \le 0.05$) and 2-ha scales ($P \le 0.001$) (Table 2). 320 While community composition of RIL forest also differed from that of 321 primary forest at 2-ha scale (P < 0.001), it did not differ from that of 322 primary forest at 0.2-ha scale (P > 0.05). Primary and CL forest were 323 324 plotted at the opposite extremes along the NMDS axis 1 consistently at both scales (Fig. 2a,b). RIL forest was plotted at similar positions with primary 325



forest at 0.2-ha scale (Fig. 2a) while at an intermediate position at 2-ha
scale (Fig. 2b).

Forest heterogeneity within a 2-ha plot, measured with Whittaker's
β-diversity, increased with increasing logging intensity (4.1, 4.6 and 4.8 in
primary, RIL and CL forest, respectively).

331

332 Species richness

We recorded 1324 stems of 360 species in 0.2-ha plots and 2992 stems of
544 species (3614 stems ≥ 5 cm dbh of 589 species) in 2-ha plots. Observed
number of families and genera were lower in CL than in the other two
forests in 0.2-ha plots, while it did not largely differ among forest types in
2-ha plots (Table 1). Observed number of species per unit area was lower in
CL than in the other two forests, but did not differ between primary and RIL
forest, regardless of plot size and tree size class (Table 1, Fig. 3a-c,g-j).

340 Species richness (estimated number of species) in 0.2-ha plots was also lower in CL than in the other two forests (Table 1). Species richness in 341 342 2-ha plots was greater in RIL, intermediate in primary, and lower in CL forest. Species richness of primary forest was 1.6 times greater at 0.2-ha 343 scale (50.1 vs. 31.1 species), while only 1.06 times greater at 2-ha scale 344 than that of CL forest (257 vs. 243 species). Such higher species richness of 345 the two logged forests at 2-ha scale compared at 0.2-ha scale is due to the 346 347 difference in species richness of small trees between 0.2-ha and 2-ha scale. 348 In 2-ha plots, species richness of trees with 5-20 cm dbh did not differ 349 between primary and CV forest (Fig. 3m,n), and that with 10-20 cm dbh was rather higher in RIL than in primary forest (Fig. 3m). 350

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351 Scale dependency of the two metrics

A significant relationship between species richness and AGB (as the degree of forest degradation) was obtained at only one out of the three plot designs (i.e. replicated 0.2-ha plots) (Fig. 4a). By contrast, there was a consistent linear relationship between NMDS axis 1 scores (as community similarity) and AGB irrespective of plot design (Fig. 4d-f).

357

358 **DISCUSSION**

Species richness in RIL forest was consistently higher than that in CL forest 359 at both spatial scales, and rather higher than that in primary forest at 2-ha 360 scale. Conventional logging in Tangkulap has caused a greater disturbance, 361 362 which have led to the loss of late-successional species. Logging following the RIL guidelines in Deramakot extracted a reduced volume of timber and 363 reduced collateral damages to the residual stands (Lagan et al. 2007). Such 364 365 efforts may create favorable habitats for pioneer species, while maintain the late-successional species, leading to the greater species richness in RIL than 366 367 in the other two forests. This may correspond with the intermediate disturbance hypothesis (Connell 1978), which predicts local species 368 diversity to be maximal at an intermediate level of disturbance, due to the 369 coexistence of late-successional and pioneer species. Accordingly, RIL does 370 not appear to reduce tree species richness substantially, nor does it promote 371 the prolific colonization of pioneer species. 372

Relationships between tree species richness and logging intensity varied with plot size. There was no difference in species richness between primary and RIL forest at 0.2-ha scale, but rather higher richness in RIL

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than in primary forest at 2-ha scale. Species richness of primary forest was 376 1.6 times greater at 0.2-ha scale, but only 1.06 times greater at 2-ha scale 377 than that of CL forest. Logged forests consist of both patches with low 378 379 species richness (due to the degradation or the dominance of a few pioneer 380 species recruited) and patches with relatively high species richness (due to the coexistence of late-successional and pioneer species at small size class). 381 In degraded forest landscapes, the latter patches may occupy a small area 382 383 and be distributed heterogeneously. Probability of encountering such 384 patches with high species richness will decrease when sampled with smaller plots. This is one major reason why the two logged forests showed 385 relatively higher species richness at 2-ha scale compared at 0.2-ha scale. 386

387 Previous studies have demonstrated inconsistent responses of tree species richness to selective logging, with unchanged (Bischoff et al. 2005; 388 Foody and Cutler 2003; Hall et al. 2003; Kirika et al. 2010; Medjibe et al. 389 390 2011; Slik et al. 2002; Verburg and van Eijk-Bos 2003), decreased (Brearley et al. 2004; Gutiérrez-Granados et al. 2011; Makana and Thomas 2006; 391 392 Okuda et al. 2003), and increased (Berry et al. 2010; Cannon et al. 1998; 393 Plumptre 1996) richness following logging. Most studies used a single plot size, and compared species richness between unlogged and logged forests 394 without the variation of logging intensity (but see Kirika et al. 2010; 395 Molino and Sabatier 2001; Verburg and van Eijk-Bos 2003). Selective 396 397 logging actually has a wide variation in the volume of timber extracted and 398 the severity of damage caused by the removal of individual trees and road 399 construction (Cannon et al. 1994). Our results indicate that responses of tree species richness to logging intensity can covary with plot size. These 400



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401 two uncontrolled factors (logging intensity and plot size) among different
402 studies may be the possible reasons for the inconsistent responses of tree
403 species richness to selective logging.

404 Unlike species richness, community composition of RIL forest more 405 resembled that of primary forest than that of CL forest regardless of plot size. Therefore, community similarity consistently showed a linear 406 relationship with the degree of forest degradation irrespective of plot design 407 408 (Fig. 4). Community similarity is a sensitive and consistent metric to 409 evaluate the effects of logging on tree assemblage, rather than species richness per se, which inevitably combines the responses of two contrasting 410 regeneration guilds (pioneer and late-successional species), provides no 411 412 information on such species identity, and is highly dependent on spatial scale of sampling. 413

414 In conclusion, RIL can conserve the richness and community composition of tree species at a similar level with primary forest. These 415 positive effects are a co-benefit of RIL, because RIL is primarily a forestry 416 417 practice to sustainably produce timber. Unfortunately, unregulated selective 418 logging is still common in the tropics (Blaser et al. 2011). If RIL were adopted in much larger areas of natural production forests, a substantial 419 reduction of logging damage on tree assemblage can be expected while 420 timber is sustainably produced. Our results also demonstrated different 421 422 scale-dependent responses between the two metrics (species richness and 423 community similarity) to logging intensity. We suggest that research on the 424 forest-management adequacy should include several metrics including community similarity at different spatial scales, rather than just evaluating 425

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426 changes in a single metric relating to species richness at a single spatial427 scale.

428

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676	Table 1 Forest structure and tree species diversity of three to four 0.2-ha
677	plots and one 2-ha plot in primary, reduced-impact logged (RIL), and
678	conventionally logged (CL) forest. Stem density, above-ground biomass
679	(AGB), maximum dbh, basal area, observed number of families, genera
680	and species, and estimated number species (per 70 stems in 0.2-ha plots
681	and per 850 stems in 2-ha plots) are shown. Parentheses indicate values
682	for trees ≥ 5 cm dbh. Forests sharing the same letters do not differ
683	significantly at $P < 0.05$. Pioneer species: five Macaranga species (M.
684	conifera, M. gigantea, M. hypoleuca, M. pearsonii, M. bancana) and two
685	Croton species (C. argyratus, C. oblongus) of Euphorbiaceae, and two

686 Rubiaceae species (Neolamarckia cadamba, Neonauclea sp.)

			0.2-ha	a plots					2-ha	plots		
	Prim	ary	RI	IL	CL		Pri	mary	R	.IL	C	CL
Stem density (/ha)	623	±97	613	±72	457	±85	607		504		428	
AGB (Mg/ha)	499 ^a	±60	341 ^a	±52	163 ^b	±84	378		290		216	
Maximum dbh (cm)	114 ^a	±12	106 ^a	±10	63 ^b	±9	129		145		92	
Basal area (m²/ha)												
Total	41.2 ª	±4.6	32.7 ^a	±4.5	19.0 ^b	±7.4	34.2		28.6		23.3	
Dipterocarp	19.9 ^a	±3.7	13.2 ^b	±3.4	5.1 °	±0.8	17.6		12.4		8.5	
Pioneer	1.3 ^b	±0.5	2.3 ^b	±1.9	8.1 ^a	±3.7	0.4		2.4		4.2	
Observed no. families	30.3 ^a	±1.9	29.0 ^a	±2.0	20.7 ^b	±2.1	52	(52)	51	(53)	48	(51)
Observed no. genera	51.5 ª	±5.4	51.5 ^a	±4.5	30.0 ^b	±4.6	135	(144)	124	(134)	121	(131)
Observed no. species	82.5 ^a	±9.3	79.5 ^a	±10.3	39.3 ^b	±6.4	296	(319)	298	(340)	243	(263)
Estimated no. species	50.1 ^a	±9.1	49.5 ^a	±5.9	31.1 ^b	±6.3	257		282		243	



688	Table 2	PERMANOVA test results for community-composition

- 689 differences between primary, reduced-impact logged (RIL) and
- 690 conventionally logged (CL) forest. The r^2 values are shown for all
- 691 pairwise comparisons between forest types. Significant differences are in

692 bold.
$$P = * < 0.05, ** < 0.01, *** < 0.001$$

	0.2 ha plata	2 ha plata
	0.2-na prots	∠-na prots
Among the three forests	0.19 **	0.35 ***
Primary-RIL	0.15	0.31 ***
Primary-CL	0.31 *	0.39 ***
RIL-CL	0.36 *	0.18 ***

- 28 -



708 Figure captions

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710	Fig. 1 Frequency distribution of dbh for trees ≥ 5 cm dbh at one 2-ha plot
711	(black bars) and trees ≥ 10 cm dbh at three to four 0.2-ha plots (dotted
712	bars) in primary (a), reduced-impact logged (RIL) (b) and conventionally
713	logged (CL) forest (c). Values for trees ≥ 60 cm dbh are also shown in an
714	inlet. Error bars indicate SD.
715	
716	Fig. 2 An ordination of tree community composition of primary,
717	reduced-impact logged (RIL) and conventionally logged (CL) forest in
718	the eleven 0.2-ha plots (a) and thirty 0.2-ha subplots in the three 2-ha
719	plots (b) on the coordinate of axis 1 and axis 2 of NMDS analysis. Stress
720	values are also shown.
721	
722	Fig. 3 Species accumulation curves of three to four 0.2-ha plots (a-f) and
723	one 2-ha plot (g-n) in each of primary, reduced-impact logged (RIL) and
724	conventionally logged (CL) forest by tree size class. Error bars indicate
725	SD. Species-area curves: a-c,g-j; species-individual curves: d-f,k-n
726	
727	Fig. 4 Relationships between above-ground biomass (AGB) and estimated
728	number of species (a-c) and NMDS axis 1 scores (d-f) in the three
729	sampling designs; three to four 0.2-ha plots and a 2-ha plot in primary,
730	reduced-impact logged (RIL) and conventionally logged (CL) forest, and
731	ten 0.2-ha subplots within each 2-ha plot. Relationships significant at $P <$
732	0.05 only are shown.





736







739 Fig. 2

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Fig. 3 743

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