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6 **Floristics of forests across low nutrient soils in Sulawesi, Indonesia**

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10 **Liam A. Trethowan**^{1,2}, **Wolf L. Eiserhardt**^{2,3}, **Deden Girmansyah**⁴, **Endang Kintamani**
11 **⁴, Timothy M. A. Utteridge**², **Francis Q. Brearley**¹

12 ¹ Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, United Kingdom.

13 ² Royal Botanic Gardens Kew, London, United Kingdom.

14 ³ Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark.

15 ⁴ Herbarium Bogoriense, Indonesian Institute of Sciences, Cibinong, Indonesia.

16 **Correspondence:** Liam Trethowan, Herbarium, Royal Botanic Gardens Kew, London,
17 United Kingdom. Email: l.trethowan@kew.org

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24 **Abstract**

25 The island of Sulawesi formed from the joining of proto-islands roughly three million years
26 ago. Regions of zoological endemism, corresponding to the proto-islands, have been
27 reported. Sulawesi's tree communities, however, remain poorly documented. In better-
28 studied tropical regions, soil types similar to those found in Sulawesi often have distinctive
29 tree communities. To gather data on Sulawesi's tree communities we established ten (0.25
30 ha) plots on four soil types across three regions. We documented diversity, endemism,
31 dominance and species composition. Linear models of species composition showed greater
32 influence of geographic distance rather than soil, and no relationship with climate. This
33 suggests that the legacy of Sulawesi's formation may have influenced tree communities more
34 so than the soil types we sampled. Most of our plots were on stressful soil types making it
35 difficult to conclude on the importance of edaphic specialization in the Sulawesi tree flora.
36 The lack of climatic effects reflects Sulawesi's position within the wet tropics where the
37 small climatic differences are unlikely to have large influence on tree communities.

38

39 *Key words:* biogeography; Indonesia; macroecology; serpentine; ultramafic; Wallacea.

40

41 The data in this study are openly available at

42 https://figshare.com/authors/Liam_Trethowan/8268603

43 1. INTRODUCTION

44

45 The bioregion of Wallacea is made up of the islands between Borneo and New Guinea. It has
46 high species richness and endemism, and its forests are threatened by human land-use change
47 (Myers *et al.* 2000). Wallacean islands are key to the dispersal and diversification of the few
48 well-studied taxa (Moyle *et al.* 2016, Tänzler *et al.* 2016, Rowe *et al.* 2019), yet most taxa in
49 Wallacea are poorly studied. Wallacea's largest island is Sulawesi, and its diversity is of such
50 interest that it was described by Alfred Russell Wallace as

51

52 *'wonderfully rich in peculiar forms; many of which are singular or beautiful, and are in some*
53 *cases absolutely unique'* (Wallace 1869).

54

55 Discovery of the 'peculiar', 'beautiful' and 'unique' flora continues (Cámara-Leret &
56 Veldkamp 2011, Bramley 2012, Low 2013, Brambach *et al.* 2016, Rugayah & Sunarti 2017,
57 Rustiami & Henderson 2017, Kartonegoro *et al.* 2018). Knowledge of floristics across much
58 of the island is still lacking, however, with low density of botanical collections and forest
59 monitoring plots (Kessler *et al.* 2002, Brearley *et al.* 2019). One of the only places where the
60 flora has been examined thoroughly is the Lore Lindu National Park (Culmsee *et al.* 2010,
61 2011, Culmsee & Leuschner 2013, Brambach *et al.* 2017, 2020), a site that covers only a few
62 of the soil types found in Sulawesi (Cannon *et al.* 2007). The island has many soil types
63 including limestone and ultramafic soils that possess a chemistry that many plants are ill-
64 equipped to tolerate (Nie *et al.* 2011, Galey *et al.* 2017, Kong *et al.* 2017, Pillon *et al.* 2019).
65 Limestone soils have high pH and high magnesium and calcium concentrations (Nie *et al.*
66 2011), whilst ultramafic soils are rich in many often toxic metals and low in phosphorus
67 (Proctor 2003). On Sulawesi there are also nitrogen-poor sandy soils and mafic soils that are
68 metal rich but less so than ultramafics (Cannon *et al.* 2007, Whitten *et al.* 2012). In

69 combination, these soils create a mosaic of varying stressors. The tree communities across
70 this mosaic are the subject of this paper.

71

72 Specialization of plants to a particular soil type occurs often (Cowling *et al.* 1994).
73 Species traits tend to be adapted to specific ranges of environmental variables (Parker &
74 Maynard Smith 1990). Species do not, therefore, occupy environments where their traits do
75 not offer sufficient fitness (Fernandez-Goñig *et al.* 2013). The result is species that are
76 restricted to a single environment. In other parts of the world, the stressful soil types found in
77 Sulawesi harbour many endemic species (Cowling & Holmes 1992, Anacker 2011, Fine &
78 Baraloto 2016). Furthermore, zoological endemism in Sulawesi has a marked spatial
79 influence (Evans *et al.* 2003), that most obviously correlates with the formation of the island
80 (Frantz *et al.* 2018). Sulawesi formed from an agglomeration of a number of different proto-
81 islands within the last 20 million years (Nugraha & Hall 2018). The proto-islands largely
82 overlap with the identified areas of endemism (Fooden 1969, Evans *et al.* 2003). To what
83 degree island formation and soils have shaped endemism in Sulawesi's tree flora is unclear.

84

85 In most communities, a few common species tend to be found together with many
86 rarer species (Preston 1948). Tree species become common in very specific local
87 environmental conditions (Umaña *et al.* 2017) and, as a result, do not generally dominate
88 across different environments (Pitman *et al.* 2013) although there are, of course, exceptions
89 to the rule (Draper *et al.* 2019). Exceptions occur when contrast in the environment is not too
90 great (Fine & Baraloto 2016). For instance, in the western Amazon there is a large contrast
91 between infertile white sands and more fertile terra firme soils and the dominant species
92 differ (Fine & Baraloto 2016). Whereas, in the Upper Rio Negro of Brazil terra firme soils
93 are less fertile, the contrast with white sand is less and dominants occur across the divide

94 (Stropp *et al.* 2011). Tree species dominance across the soils of Sulawesi is completely
95 unknown.

96

97 Here we present analyses of ten 0.25 ha forest plots across Sulawesi. We explore (1)
98 diversity, endemism and species dominance at sites and (2) the edaphic and spatial effects
99 upon the difference between communities across sites.

100

101 **2. METHODS**

102

103 **2.1 Field sites, sample collection and species identification**

104 Ten lowland 0.25 ha permanent forest plots were established during 2016 (Figure 1, Table
105 S1). Two plots were located on ultramafic soils in Morowali Nature Reserve. Four plots were
106 located on the Bualemo peninsula, two were on mafic soils and two on limestone. Four plots
107 were located on Wawonii island, two were on sand and two on ultramafic soils.

108

109 Based upon the spatial structure of genetic data from animal populations, seven areas
110 of endemism have been drawn in Sulawesi (Evans *et al.* 2003). Wawonii is part of the
111 Southeast area of endemism, Bualemo part of East Central and Morowali is at the boundary
112 between East and West Central. Sites also differ in their geological history (Nugraha & Hall
113 2018): Wawonii emerged above sea level within the last 4 million years; Morowali uplifted
114 as part of a proto-island c. 20 million years ago, and the continued uplift of this proto-island
115 led to the emergence of Bualemo c. 3 million years ago. These dates are based upon
116 palaeontological, petrological and heavy mineral studies, U-Pb dating of detrital zircons and
117 analysis of sedimentary rocks in the field; there is an understandable degree of error in these

118 dates with greater likelihood of error the further back in time the date in question (Nugraha &
119 Hall 2018).

120

121 Following published protocols, trees with stems ≥ 10 cm diameter at breast height (dbh;
122 1.3 m) were measured and permanently tagged (Phillips *et al.* 2009). Specimens for all species
123 were collected and deposited at Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew and Herbarium Bogoriense. The
124 top set and a set for Palu are stored at Bogor. The Tropical Plant Families Identification
125 Handbook (Utteridge & Bramley 2015) was used for preliminary field-based family level
126 specimen identification with final identification of specimens undertaken at Kew. All
127 individuals were assigned to genera. Specimens that could not be confidently assigned to a
128 named species were assigned as having an affinity to another species (10 % of stems) or as a
129 morphospecies within the assigned genus (42 %). Specimens were compared among sites, so
130 that even where a species name could not be confidently assigned to a species, we were
131 confident that a taxon occurring at more than one site was given the same morphospecies code.

132

133 **2.2 Soil data**

134 Soil samples were collected from each of the 10 x 10 m subplots within each plot and pooled
135 to form a single sample per plot. Total C measurement used the Walkley and Black method
136 and total N the Kjeldahl method. Total soil Al, Ca, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Ni, P and Zn
137 was quantified via digestion of 0.5 g soil in 5 ml HNO₃ and 1 ml HClO₄ at 100 to 200 ° C by
138 ramping over a 7 hour period then diluted to 25 ml with deionized water and analysis on an
139 Agilent Technologies 4100 microwave plasma atomic emission spectrometer (Co, Cr and Ni)
140 or an Agilent Technologies 200 Series atomic absorption spectrometer (all other elements).
141 Soil metal concentrations were first scaled (z-scores) and then reduced to five principal
142 component (PC) axes that accounted for > 90 % variability in the full dataset. Axes 1 and 3

143 accounted for variability in micronutrients and soil trace elements Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni and
144 Zn, axis 2: Al, C and phytonutrients Ca, N and P, axis 4: Co and Mg, and axis 5: K. Full
145 loadings can be found in the supplementary material (Table S2).

146

147 **2.3 Diversity, endemism and dominance**

148 We calculated Hill number conversions of species richness, Shannon and Simpson diversities
149 for each site (Chao *et al.* 2014). The use of Hill numbers overcomes the lack of a linear
150 relationship between abundance-weighted diversity measures and increasing species richness
151 when partitioning diversity between assemblages (Chiu *et al.* 2014). Species richness,
152 Shannon and Simpson diversity equivalents are defined by a weighting parameter q with
153 values 0, 1 and 2 respectively (Hill 1973). To deal with the issue of diversity scaling with
154 sample size, we also calculated interpolated (rarefied) diversity values. This gave us diversity
155 values equal to those calculated if all plots had the same number of individuals as the plot
156 with fewest individuals. To identify the effect of region and soil PC axes upon diversity
157 measures we used a general linear model. We also calculated Fisher's alpha diversity for
158 comparison with regional datasets.

159

160 To identify how many species at our sites are endemic to Sulawesi we first consulted
161 the Plants of the World Online database (POWO 2019). For those families in POWO not
162 reviewed by taxonomic experts we checked Flora Malesiana (van Steenis 1951). If there was
163 also no Flora Malesiana treatment, we reviewed relevant literature (Merrill 1922, Sleumer
164 1969, Hartley 1979, Stevens 1980, Turner 1995, Weerasooriya & Saunders 2002, Wiriadinata
165 *et al.* 2013, de Kok 2016, Ganesan *et al.* 2020).

166

167 We also carried out an indicator species analyses (Dufrêne & Legendre 1997). We
168 identified indicator species for regions and soil types. Species that represent at least ten
169 percent of stems across at least ten percent of plots were designated as dominant (Arellano *et*
170 *al.* 2014).

171

172 **2.4 Difference in community species composition**

173 The difference in community composition between sites was calculated with Jaccard
174 (incidence based) and Bray Curtis (abundance weighted) beta diversity measures. We
175 calculated the components of Jaccard similarity known as nestedness and turnover. This
176 shows if differences between sites are caused by one community being a subset of the other
177 (nestedness) or by the presence of species unique to each assemblage (turnover) (Baselga
178 2010). Bray-Curtis component equivalents were also calculated (Baselga 2017). Mantel tests
179 were used to test for effects of spatial, edaphic and climatic distance upon beta diversity
180 measures. We fitted linear models of beta diversity measure as the response and each of
181 spatial, edaphic and climatic distance as predictors and took the adjusted R^2 values as a
182 measure of how much each predictor explained variance in beta diversity. Edaphic distance
183 was defined as the Euclidean distance in 5-dimensional (5 PCA axes) space between plots.
184 Nineteen climatic variables from WorldClim were scaled (z-scores) and reduced to 3
185 principal component axes (that explained > 90 % variation in the data). Climatic distances
186 were the Euclidean distances between plots in the 3 PCA axes-based multivariate space.
187 Climatic variables used were annual mean temperature, mean diurnal temperature range,
188 isothermality, temperature seasonality, maximum temperature of warmest month, minimum
189 temperature of coldest month, temperature annual range, mean temperature of wettest
190 quarter, mean temperature of driest quarter, mean temperature of warmest quarter, mean
191 temperature of coldest quarter, annual precipitation, precipitation of wettest month,

192 precipitation of driest month, precipitation seasonality, precipitation of wettest quarter,
193 precipitation of driest quarter, precipitation of warmest quarter and precipitation of coldest
194 quarter.

195

196 We performed non-metric dimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination and ran
197 permutation tests (999 permutations) to quantify the significance of soil axes and region upon
198 community composition. We also carried out UPMGA cluster analysis of the Jaccard
199 dissimilarity matrix.

200

201 All analyses were performed in R version 3.4.1 (R Core Team 2017). Hill numbers
202 were calculated with *iNext* (Hsieh *et al.* 2016). Indicator species analysis was performed with
203 *indicspecies*. Beta diversity and components calculated with *betapart* (Baselga 2010) and
204 visualised using ternary plots in *ggtern* (Hamilton & Ferry 2018). The dissimilarity measures
205 calculated in *betapart* were converted to similarity measures (1 – dissimilarity) to conform
206 with ternary plot requirement for variables to sum to a constant. NMDS ordination and
207 permutation tests for effects of environment was carried out with *vegan*. Code for analysis is
208 in online supporting information.

209

210 **3. RESULTS**

211

212 **3.1 General floristics**

213 In total, 1434 trees from 283 species were recorded across all ten plots (Table S3 and S4).
214 Burseraceae (140 individuals), Myristicaceae (108), Sapotaceae (108) and Myrtaceae (100)
215 were the most commonly encountered families. *Gironniera subaequalis* (Cannabaceae; 75)
216 and *Castanopsis acuminatissima* (Fagaceae; 48) were the two most common species.

217 Myristicaceae, Myrtaceae and Sapotaceae were the most diverse families with 20, 19 and 18
218 species/morphospecies respectively. Only seven species were found in all three regions, these
219 were *Cerbera odollum* (Apocynaceae), *Endiandra sulavesiana* (Lauraceae), *Garcinia*
220 *celebica* (Clusiaceae), a morphospecies of *Garcinia*, *Gnetum gnemon* (Gnetaceae) *Myristica*
221 *koordersii* (Myristicaceae) and a morphospecies of *Syzygium* (Myrtaceae). Five species were
222 present in both Bualemo and Morowali, six in both Bualemo and Wawonii and 13 in both
223 Morowali and Bualemo. Fifty-five species were found on more than one soil type.

224

225 **3.2 Diversity, endemism and dominance**

226 We found no effect of region and weak effects of soil PC axes upon Hill value diversity (Fig.
227 2). This was consistent across measures increasingly weighted by species abundance and
228 interpolated measures (Fig. 2). Fisher's alpha shows greater diversity across our plot series
229 compared to Seram (Edwards *et al.* 1990). However, greater diversity was seen in Borneo
230 and Sumatra (e.g. Potts *et al.* 2002, Sambas and Siregar 2004).

231

232 We found 20 species endemic to Sulawesi across our plots. We found three indicator
233 species on sand; on sand and ultramafic we found a single indicator, and a single indicator
234 species was found on mafic and limestone (Table 1). There was a single indicator species for
235 Bualemo only, 14 for Morowali only, seven for Wawonii only and two indicator species for
236 both Morowali and Wawonii (Table 2).

237

238 We identified nine dominant species (Arellano *et al.* 2014). These were *Gironniera*
239 *subaequalis* (Cannabaceae), *Microcos* aff. *paniculata* (Malvaceae) and *Palaquium maliliense*
240 (Sapotaceae), two morphospecies of *Canarium* (Burseraceae) and a morphospecies each of
241 *Aglaia* (Meliaceae), *Dacryodes* (Burseraceae), *Mallotus* (Euphorbiaceae) and *Platea*

242 (Metteniusaceae, recently moved from Icacinaceae). These species accounted for 10 % of
243 stems in at least one plot and, generally, this frequency was only reached in a single plot.
244 There was no overlap with the seven taxa that are found in all three regions. These species
245 only ever dominated in one region and generally on one soil type.

246

247 **3.3 Difference in community species composition**

248 Results from incidence based (Jaccard) and abundance based (Bray Curtis) differences in
249 community composition were consistent across analyses. For simplicity, we present Jaccard
250 dissimilarity results here (Bray Curtis component equivalents can be found in supporting
251 information, Figure S1). Jaccard dissimilarity results were caused by species turnover
252 between communities rather than nestedness (Figure 3). We found no significant effects of
253 space, soil or climate upon Jaccard dissimilarity according to Mantel tests (all $p > 0.1$). A
254 greater amount of variation in Jaccard dissimilarity was explained by space (adjusted $R^2 =$
255 0.006) than soil however (adjusted $R^2 = 0.002$), and climate lacked a relationship with
256 Jaccard dissimilarity (adjusted $R^2 = -0.014$). Overall, this reflected large differences in
257 community composition between regions and greater similarity within regions; there was still
258 low similarity between plots in Bualemo, however.

259

260 The NMDS ordination (Figure 4a) and permutation tests showed no impact of soil
261 variables (all axes $p > 0.05$) but a significant impact of region ($p = 0.001$) upon community
262 species composition. The UPMGA clustering of the Jaccard dissimilarity results showed
263 clear regional groups (Fig. 3b). Within each regional cluster, communities on the same soil
264 type tended to group together. The only exception being the limestone plots in Bualemo -
265 these two plots were on a limestone hill and in a limestone valley respectively.

266

267 4. DISCUSSION

268 Results tentatively show spatial structuring of tree communities in Sulawesi. If this is
269 the case, could it be a legacy of Sulawesi's island formation? The current landmass formed c.
270 3 million years ago. Since that time, it appears that the tree flora between the three regions we
271 sampled have remained very different. This could simply be a result of species lacking traits
272 that promote dispersal between regions (Nekola & White 1999). This seems unlikely in
273 Sulawesi where the requirement to occupy the newly formed proto-islands should promote a
274 flora with high dispersal capacity (Arjona *et al.* 2018). There could also be climatic barriers
275 to dispersal between the three study regions (Garg *et al.* 2018, Giarla *et al.* 2018). However,
276 Sulawesi belongs to the wet tropical biome (Metzger *et al.* 2013). This is important because
277 biome boundaries tend to limit plant dispersal (Crisp *et al.* 2009). Therefore, because
278 Sulawesi does not have sharp biome boundaries, there are unlikely to be large climatic effects
279 upon dispersal between regions - this is reflected in the lack of climatic covariation with beta
280 diversity seen here. So, could the uplift and formation of Sulawesi shape the tree
281 communities? Island uplift creates newly available land area (Borregaard *et al.* 2017). There
282 should be a lag in time before this area is colonised (Svenning *et al.* 2015). Could the time
283 lag be increased if the newly available land area is a result of proto-islands becoming a single
284 island? Initially, regional floras would reflect the floras of the proto-islands. This should limit
285 dispersal between regions because of limits imposed by the competing species of the flora
286 already present (Foster 1999).

287

288 The second result of note is the small effect of soil upon tree communities. Across
289 both the Amazon and Borneo, soils shape tree communities (Potts *et al.* 2002, Fine &
290 Kembel 2011, Eiserhardt *et al.* 2013, Cámara-Leret *et al.* 2017). This results in marked
291 turnover of species at edaphic boundaries (Paoli *et al.* 2006, Fine *et al.* 2010, Aiba *et al.*

292 2015, Draper *et al.* 2017). In Sulawesi, we find that edaphic difference between sites
293 correlates with community composition far less than spatial separation. So why could we find
294 a low effect of soil in Sulawesi? The main difference between our sites and many studied
295 elsewhere is that we mostly sampled soils considered stressful for plants. Large
296 compositional differences in tree communities tend to be seen between a benign and harsh
297 soil type because species adapted to benign environments cannot tolerate the stressful areas,
298 and species that tolerate stressful areas are outcompeted in benign environments (Grime
299 1977). If the flora of Sulawesi is generally tolerant of the stressful soils, perhaps the boundary
300 from one soil to the next is not as great as that between benign and stressful soil - meaning
301 stress tolerant species are able to persist across soil types.

302

303 The results here are preliminary, the ten sites presented above need to be
304 complemented with data from other areas of endemism and more fertile soil types. Only with
305 this data will it be possible to test how stress tolerance and the legacy of proto-islands joining
306 influences Sulawesi's flora. A future dataset could begin by combining those sites presented
307 here alongside those from Lore Lindu National Park. An initial comparison suggests that the
308 Celestrales, Oxalidales, Malphigiales (COM) clade that often dominate ultramafic floras
309 (Pillon *et al.* 2019) account for 17 % of stems at our sites, whereas, in Lore Lindu (albeit at
310 higher elevations than our sites), COM species account for < 10 % of stems (Brambach *et al.*
311 2017). Unpacking how the stressful soils of Sulawesi differentially affect clades should be
312 possible with a larger dataset (Fernandez-Going *et al.* 2013).

313

314 Recently there has been a re-emphasis on the effects of geological variability upon
315 biodiversity (Alahuhta *et al.* 2020, Read *et al.* 2020). Sulawesi not only has many types of
316 geology (i.e. those underlying the soil types studied here), but it also has an ontogeny with

317 the potential to influence biogeography irrespective of geological similarity or dissimilarity.
318 In addition, Sulawesi is mountainous with large areas of mafic and ultramafic soils. This
319 combination has been linked to particularly high diversity in the tropics (Rahbek *et al.* 2019).
320 How species richness and turnover across space is affected by both island/mountain
321 formation and geology in Sulawesi requires substantial future research.

322

323

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- 542
- 543

544 Table 1 Indicator tree species for communities on contrasting soil types in forest plots across
545 three regions in Sulawesi, Indonesia.

546

Family	Species	Indicator value	P value
Sand			
Stemonuraceae	<i>Stemonurus celebicus</i>	0.981	0.020
Burseraceae	<i>Canarium sp. 5</i>	0.972	0.025
Pentaphylacaceae	<i>Ternstroemia aff. penangiana</i>	0.943	0.020
Limestone and mafic			
Sapindaceae	<i>Pometia pinnata</i>	1	0.010
Sand and ultramafic			
Cannabaceae	<i>Gironniera subaequalis</i>	1	0.010

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559 Table 2 Indicator tree species for communities in forest plots across three regions of
 560 Sulawesi, Indonesia.

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Family	Species	Indicator value	P value
Bualemo			
Sapindaceae	<i>Pometia pinnata</i>	1	0.015
Morowali			
Araucariaceae	<i>Agathis dammara</i>	1	0.025
Phyllanthaceae	<i>Baccaurea celebica</i>	1	0.025
Putranjivaceae	<i>Drypetes aff. longifolia</i>	1	0.025
Meliaceae	<i>Dysoxylum aff. alliaceum</i>	1	0.025
Moraceae	<i>Ficus subulata</i>	1	0.025
Cardiopteridaceae	<i>Gonocaryum littorale</i>	1	0.025
Chrysobalanaceae	<i>Kostermanthus sp. 1</i>	1	0.025
Rutaceae	<i>Melicope aff. latifolia</i>	1	0.025
Myristicaceae	<i>Myristica sp. 1</i>	1	0.025
Sapotaceae	<i>Planchonella aff. malaccensis</i>	1	0.025
Oxalidaceae	<i>Sarcotheca celebica</i>	1	0.025
Myristicaceae	<i>Knema stellata</i>	0.949	0.050
Sapotaceae	<i>Palaquium sp. 5</i>	0.935	0.050
Annonaceae	<i>Monoon aff. coriaceum</i>	0.913	0.030
Wawonii			
Moraceae	<i>Artocarpus integer</i>	1	0.010
Clusiaceae	<i>Garcinia sp. 7</i>	1	0.010
Myristicaceae	<i>Horsfieldia lancifolia</i>	1	0.010
Myristicaceae	<i>Knema sp. 1</i>	1	0.010
Dipterocarpaceae	<i>Vatica flavovirens</i>	1	0.010
Fagaceae	<i>Castanopsis acuminatissima</i>	0.990	0.010
Sapotaceae	<i>Planchonella firma</i>	0.922	0.025
Morowali and Wawonii			
Cannabaceae	<i>Gironniera subaequalis</i>	1	0.015
Myrtaceae	<i>Kjellbergiodendron celebicum</i>	0.913	0.05

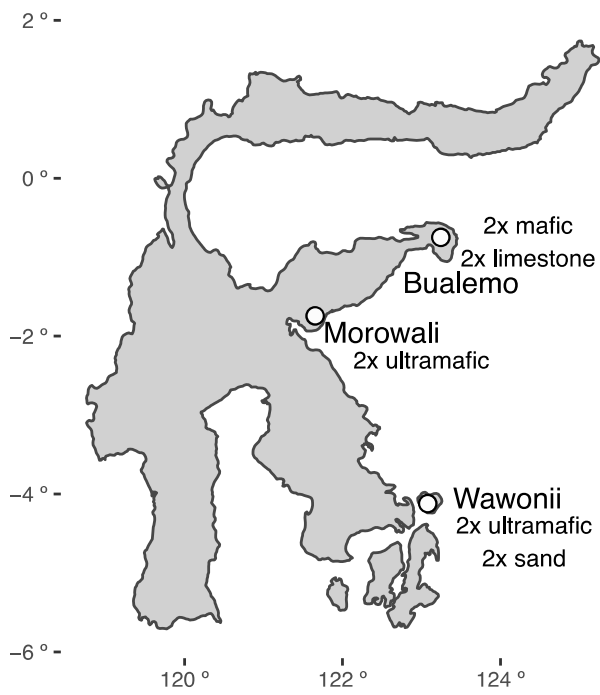
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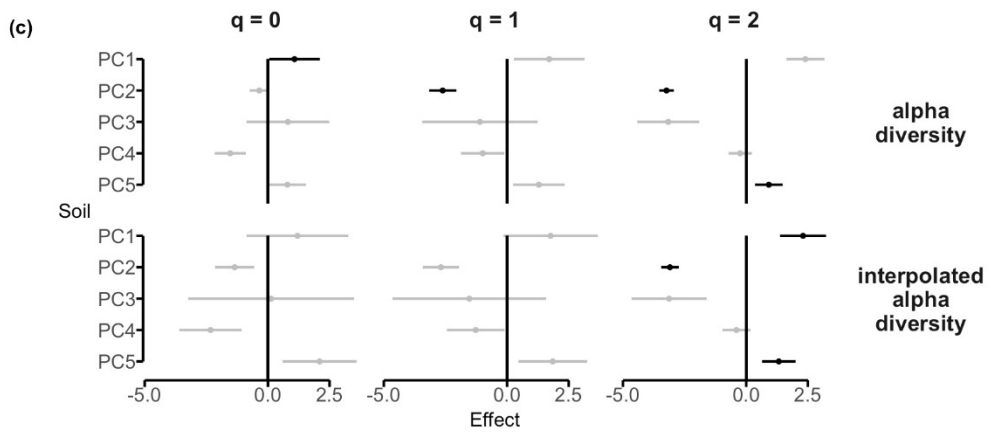
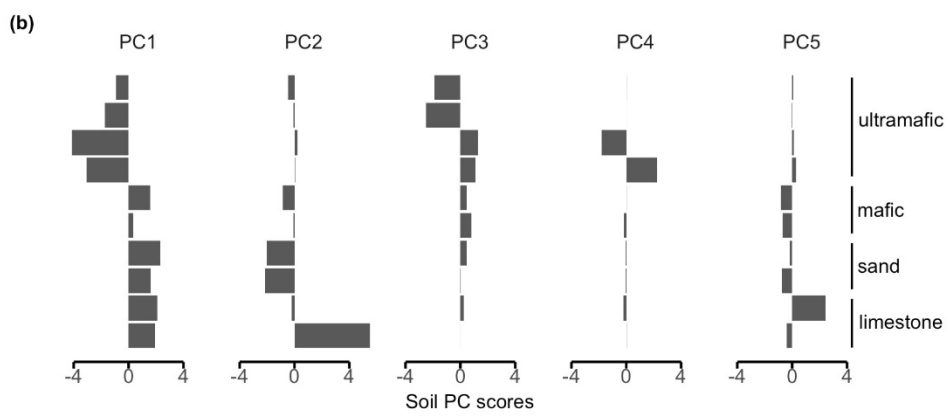
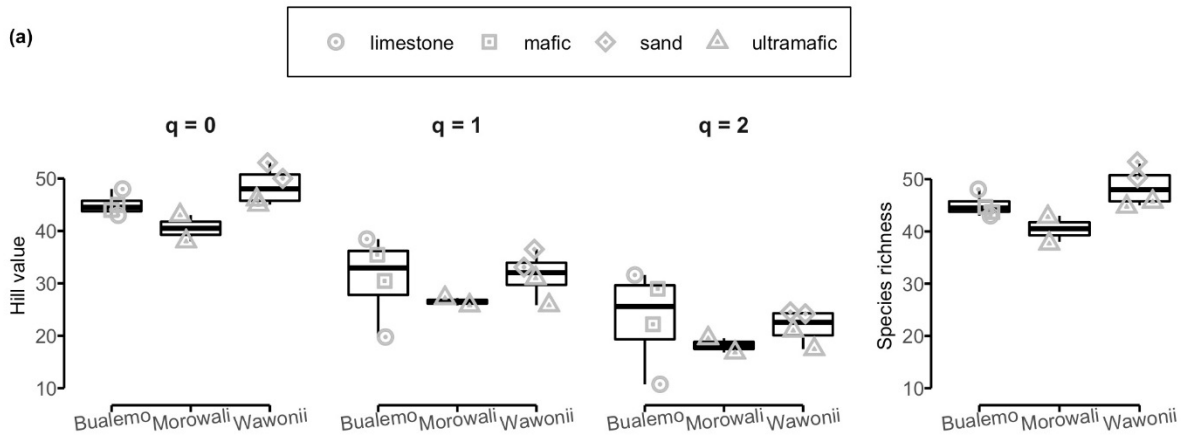
 575

576 Figure 1 Localities of permanent forest plots in Sulawesi, Indonesia. Bualemo has two mafic
577 and two limestone plots, Morowali has two ultramafic plots, and Wawonii has two ultramafic
578 and two sand plots.

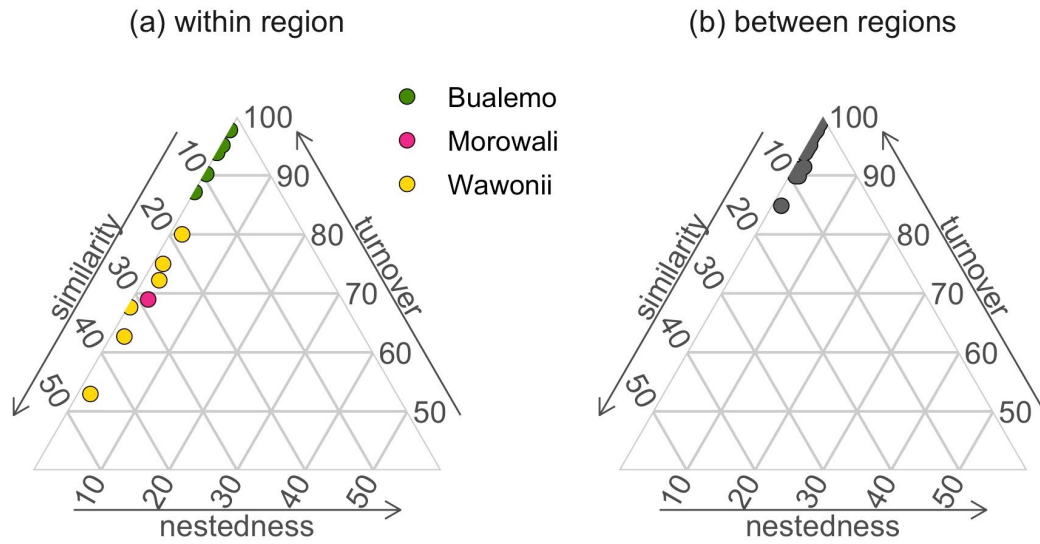


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581 Figure 2 (a) Abundance unweighted ($q = 0$) and abundance weighted ($q = 1$ and 2) Hill
582 number values and species richness of tree communities across permanent forest plots in
583 three regions of Sulawesi, Indonesia. $q = 0, 1, 2$ are species richness, Shannon and Simpson
584 diversity equivalent Hill numbers, respectively. (b) Edaphic principal component axes scores
585 for all plots in Sulawesi. (c) Effects of edaphic principal components upon Sulawesi tree
586 community Hill number and interpolated Hill number measures (rows) with increasing
587 abundance weighting defined by parameter q (columns). Significant effects ($p < 0.05$) are
588 denoted by black symbols. Points represent coefficient estimates and whiskers the standard
589 error for the estimates.
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592 Figure 3 Ternary plots of the Jaccard similarity measure of tree community beta diversity and
593 turnover and nestedness components across permanent forest plots (a) within and (b) between
594 regions of Sulawesi, Indonesia.

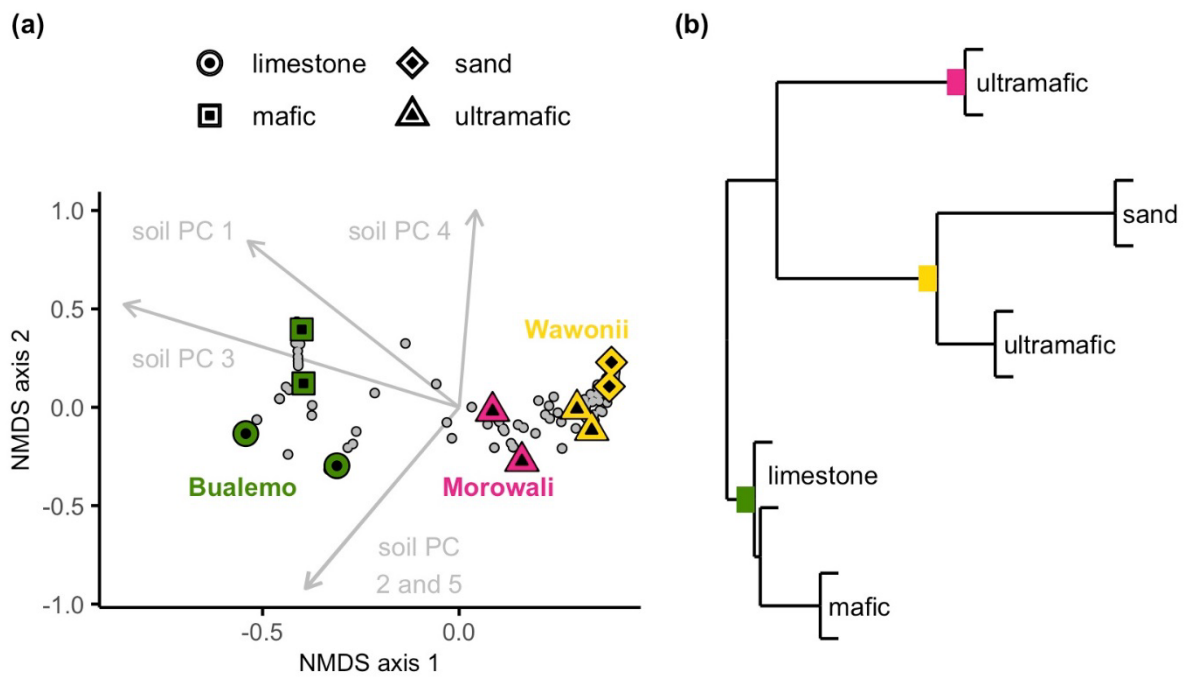


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598 Figure 4 (a) Ordination of tree communities in Sulawesi (Indonesia) forest plots by non-
 599 metric multidimensional scaling. Region is indicated with point colours. Soil types are
 600 denoted by point shape. Arrows show soil principal component (PC) axes. Grey points
 601 indicate species position in ordination space. (b) Clustergram from UPMGA scaling of
 602 Jaccard dissimilarity between communities. Colours show the region.
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607

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626