| 1 | Title: Potential tree species extinction, colonization and recruitment in Afromontane |
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| 2 | forest relicts |
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| 4 | Running title: Potential tree species shifts in forest relicts |
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22 Abstract

23 Tree species regeneration determines future forest structure and composition, but is 24 often severely hampered in small forest relicts. To study succession, long-term field 25 observations or simulation models are used but data, knowledge or resources to run 26 such models are often scarce in tropical areas. We propose and implement a species 27 accounting equation, which include the co-occurring events extinction, colonization 28 and recruitment and which can be solved by using data from a single inventory. We 29 solved this species accounting equations for the 12 remaining Afromontane cloud 30 forest relicts in Taita Hills, Kenya by comparing the tree species presence among the 31 seedling, sapling and mature tree layer in 82 plots. A simultaneous ordination of the 32 seedling, sapling and mature tree layer data revealed that potential species extinctions, 33 colonizations and recruitments may induce future species shifts. On landscape level, 34 the potential extinction debt amounted to 9% (7 species) of the regional species pool. 35 On forest relict level, the smallest relicts harbored an important proportion of the tree 36 species diversity in the regeneration layer. The average potential recruitment credit, 37 defined as species only present as seedling or sapling, was 3 and 6 species for large and 38 small forest relicts, while the average potential extinction debt was 12 and 4 species, 39 respectively. In total, both large and small relicts are expected to lose approximately 40 20% of their current local tree species pool. The species accounting equations provide a 41 time and resource effective tool and give an improved understanding of the 42 conservation status and possible future succession dynamics of forest relicts, which can 43 be particularly useful in a context of participatory monitoring.

- 45 Key words: Community structure; forest succession; late-successional species;
- 46 regeneration; restoration; secondary forest; species accounting equation; species
- 47 turnover; Taita Hills

48 Introduction

49 Destruction and loss of natural habitat are major causes of biodiversity decline and 50 species extinction (Brose 2011; Fahrig 2002; Tilman, May, Lehman & Nowak 1994). 51 Forests are one of the largest terrestrial biomes and are severely threatened by 52 anthropogenic habitat deterioration with an estimated loss of 13 to 20 million hectares 53 each year, of which one third is located in the tropics (FAO 2011; Hansen, Potapov, 54 Moore, Hancher, Turubanova et al. 2013). Many plant populations strive to survive in 55 small forest relicts (Ewers & Didham 2006) and the succession of tree species in these 56 forest patches is a central theme in plant community ecology, restoration, and land 57 management (Cook, Yao, Foster, Holt & Patrick 2005). 58 59 The succession within these forest relicts is driven by three major events, which can 60 alter the species composition of forest relicts: extinction, colonization and the 61 recruitment of seedlings and saplings to the mature tree layer. In forests, there is a time-62 lagged response of species to habitat modifications (Hylander & Nemomissa 2009; 63 Jackson & Sax 2010; Metzger, Martensen, Dixo, Bernacci, Ribeiro et al. 2009), 64 because of the long life span and regeneration time of trees (Vellend, Verheyen, 65 Jacquemyn, Kolb, Van Calster et al. 2006). The future extinction of a species due to 66 events that happened in the past is known as delayed extinction and quantified as 67 extinction debt (Hylander et al. 2009; Jackson et al. 2010; Tilman et al. 1994). 68 Although only the preservation of large areas of primary forest can safeguard the 69 complete species pool (Gibson, Lee, Koh, Brook, Gardner et al. 2011), a substantial 70 number of forest species can survive for a long time in small and degraded forest relicts 71 before they become extinct (Helm, Hanski & Pärtel 2006; Kuussaari, Bommarco,

72 Heikkinen, Helm, Krauss et al. 2009; Vellend et al. 2006). Especially the failure of 73 species regeneration is a threat to future forest biodiversity and composition because 74 species persistence depends on the availability of seeds, seedlings and saplings 75 (Albrecht, Neuschulz & Farwig 2012; Benítez-Malvido & Martínez-Ramos 2003; 76 Farwig, Sajita, Schaab & Böhning-Gaese 2008; Lawes, Joubert, Griffiths, Boudreau & 77 Chapman 2007). The extinction of a species that remains present in the regional species 78 pool (local species extinction, Fig. 1-1a), can be counterbalanced by a recolonization of 79 this species from the regional species pool (autochtonous colonization, Fig. 1-2a). 80 However, when a species is present in one relict only, its extinction in this patch will 81 result in the disappearance of the species from the region (regional species extinction, 82 Fig. 1-1b). Colonization credit is the number of species yet to colonize a forest relict 83 (Jackson et al. 2010; Piqueray, Cristofoli, Bisteau, Palm & Mahy 2011). Such 84 establishment of species within forest relicts is a gradual process because it depends on 85 several external factors like landscape structure and ability of newly arrived seeds to 86 germinate, or internal factors like succession or management (Kirika, Böhning-Gaese, 87 Dumbo & Farwig 2010; Laurance, Nascimento, Laurance, Andrade, Fearnside et al. 88 2006). Moreover, forest relicts are often characterized by new abiotic conditions (e.g. 89 altered irradiance, temperature regime or soil moisture), and biotic conditions (e.g. 90 herbivory, seed dispersal or pollination) (Cadenasso & Pickett 2000). Two types of 91 colonization can be defined, depending on the origin of the species. The colonization 92 by a species present in the regional species pool, can be defined as an autochthonous 93 species colonization (Fig. 1-2a), while the colonization by a species absent in the 94 regional species pool (e.g. invasion by an exotic species or the colonization by a new 95 species as an effect of changed climatic conditions) can be defined as an allochtonous

96 species colonization (Fig. 1-2b). The number of species only present in the regeneration 97 layer may complement the future tree layer composition and can therefore be defined 98 as recruitment credit. For instance, the number of species absent from the mature tree 99 layer but persistent in a seedling bank can be considered a recruitment credit. These 100 tree seedlings or saplings can spend decades in the forest understory waiting for 101 openings in the canopy to provide adequate light for growth in the canopy layer 102 (Comita, Aguilar, Perez, Lao & Hubbell 2007; Comita & Hubbell 2009; Cruz-103 Rodriguez & Lopez-Mata 2004). The recruitment of seedlings and saplings to the life 104 stage of mature trees depends on multiple stochastic, natural and anthropogenic factors 105 and can result in successful (Fig. 1-3a) and unsuccessful (Fig. 1-3b) species 106 recruitment. The quantification of the regenerating pool is a valuable indicator of 107 potential future tree species composition, and possibly a counterbalancing addition to 108 the extinction debt (Benítez-Malvido et al. 2003; Hylander & Ehrlén 2013; Kirika et al. 109 2010).

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111 Vegetation change can directly be detected by repeated observation of permanent plots 112 or simulation models can be used to forecast community dynamics (Feeley & Silman 113 2009; Hubbell, He, Condit, Borda-de-Agua, Kellner et al. 2008; Wearn, Reuman & 114 Ewers 2012). However, such data is often not available for tropical regions and 115 expertise is often lacking to run sophisticated models (Jackson et al. 2010). These 116 approaches are often applied to determine extinction events, yet studies on both 117 extinction and colonization events are scarce, especially in tropical regions (Comita et 118 al. 2007; Jackson et al. 2010; Kirika et al. 2010; Metzger et al. 2009; Wearn et al. 119 2012). We developed and implemented a regional and a local species accounting

120 equation, which allow the evaluation of the current forest composition and the 121 assessment of potential future dynamics. For instance, the equation includes the 122 quantification of potential extinction debt, colonization credit and recruitment credit. 123 The surveys of mature tree, sapling and seedling layer composition were conducted in 124 82 plots localised in two relatively large, one medium sized and nine very small forest 125 relicts in Taita Hills, Kenya. A simultaneous ordination of these datasets delivered 126 insights in community composition dynamics due to potential species extinction, 127 colonization or recruitment. More specifically we tested the following hypotheses: 128 (i) Tree species composition differs between life stages, both in large and small forest 129 relicts. 130 (ii) The larger forest relicts are characterized by a low potential extinction debt, 131 recruitment and colonization credit.

132 (iii) Small forest relicts have a high potential extinction debt and colonization credit

and a low potential recruitment credit.

134 Materials and methods

135 Study area

The Afromontane forest patches of the Taita Hills are located in southeastern Kenya 136 137 (3°20' S, 38°15' E), 150 km inland (Pellikka, Lotjonen, Sijander & Lens 2009). These 138 hills form the northern terminus of the Eastern Arc Mountains, which are known as a 139 biodiversity hotspot (Burgess, Butynski, Cordeiro, Doggart, Fjeldsa et al. 2007). The 140 Taita Hills rise abruptly from the Tsavo plains (600-700 m), reaching 2208 m at Vuria 141 peak. These semi-arid plains isolate the Taita forests from other mountainous areas, of 142 which Mount Kasigau is the closest at ca. 50 km distance. The potential natural 143 vegetation is Afromontane cloud forest thanks to the high rainfall and the moisture-laden 144 southeast trade winds originating from the Indian Ocean. Located in the inter-tropical 145 convergence zone, the area has a bimodal rainfall pattern; the long rains occur in March-146 May and short rains in November-December. The main concern in the Taita Hills, as in 147 other parts of the Eastern Arc Mountains, is the loss and degradation of the indigenous 148 forest (Myers, Mittermeier, Mittermeier, da Fonseca & Kent 2000; Newmark 2008). An 149 accelerating human population growth during the past 200 years, characterized by 150 agricultural expansion, fuel wood cutting, logging, livestock grazing and forest burning, 151 is the major driving force of forest loss. Nowadays, 12 forest relicts remain scattered 152 across hilltops and ridges. In total, the two larger relicts (>100 ha), one medium-sized 153 relict (86 ha) and the nine small relicts (<10 ha) cover less than 413 ha (see Appendix A: 154 Table 1 and Figure 1). The two largest relicts are less affected by anthropogenic 155 disturbance, while the medium-sized and small forest relicts (hereafter referred to as 156 small forest relicts), representing 35% of the total indigenous forest area, are currently 157 threatened by small-scale and low intensity logging and livestock grazing and browsing.

| 158 | The native forest can be characterized as secondary moist montane to intermediate |
|-----|---|
| 159 | montane forest with high species dissimilarity between individual relicts (Aerts, Thijs, |
| 160 | Lehouck, Beentje, Bytebier et al. 2011). Despite their small size, these forest patches are |
| 161 | characterized by a unique, highly diverse flora and fauna and by large numbers of |
| 162 | endemic species. For instance, at least 13 plant species are Taita endemics (Brooks, |
| 163 | Mittermeier, Mittermeier, da Fonseca, Rylands et al. 2002). |
| 164 | |
| 165 | Data collection |
| 166 | In the 12 forest relicts, we located 82 plots (see Appendix A: Table 1 and Figure 1) with |
| 167 | a minimum of two plots per relict. Plots had a nested design, with mature trees (woody |
| 168 | individuals \geq 5m) being identified and counted in 20×20 m ² plots, saplings (woody |
| 169 | individuals ≥ 1 m and < 5 m) in one 10×10 m ² subplot per plot and seedlings (woody |
| 170 | individuals < 1 m) in five 1×1 m ² subplots per plot. <i>Psychotria</i> species were identified |
| 171 | to genus only since neither fruits nor flowers required for species identification were |
| 172 | available. Shrub species were excluded from the analyses because they rarely occur in |
| 173 | the mature tree layer (> 5 m) and impede correct comparisons between the three life |
| 174 | stages. Plant species names follow the Flora of Tropical East Africa. |
| 175 | |
| 176 | Species community composition change |
| 177 | At landscape level, a multiresponse permutation procedure (MRPP) test was used for |
| 178 | testing the hypothesis of no difference between the three life stages and between the |

- 179 large and small forest relicts. The test statistic A is given as a descriptor of within
- 180 group homogeneity, compared to random expectation. (McCune & Mefford 2002).
- 181 Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) (McCune & Mefford 1999) was used to
- 182 assess the indirect gradients influencing the overall species composition changes at the

| 184 | ordination was run on the presence-absence dataset using the Sørensen distance |
|-----|--|
| 185 | measure, six starting dimensions, 40 iterations and an instability criterion of 10^{-5} |
| 186 | (McCune et al. 2002). Species scores were calculated with weighted averaging. |
| 187 | Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used for the pairwise comparison of the length and the |
| 188 | Rayleigh test for the direction of species composition shifts from seedling and sapling |
| 189 | to mature tree layer. |
| 190 | |
| 191 | Species accounting equations |
| 192 | Both a local (N_L) and a regional (N_R) species accounting equation were developed. The |
| 193 | former is applicable to a single forest patch or to a subset of forest patches (e.g. in this |
| 194 | study a combination of all the small forest relicts), while the latter is valid for the pool |
| 195 | of all the forest relicts in a specific landscape. |
| 196 | For the local species accounting equation (N _L), a forest relict is considered that consists |
| 197 | of both regenerating (R) and non-regenerating species (N). |
| 198 | $N_L = R + N \tag{Eq. 1}$ |
| 199 | Regenerating species are species that are present in both the mature tree layer and the |
| 200 | seedling or sapling layer. The sapling layer is included to diminish the chance of |
| 201 | missing some regeneration through a mast year effect (Brearley, Proctor, Suriantata, |
| 202 | Nagy, Dalrymple et al. 2007; Comita et al. 2007). Further, the non-regenerating species |
| 203 | can be split into two groups: mature species without any regeneration (potential |
| 204 | extinction debt or D_E) and seedlings or saplings without representatives in the mature |

several forest relicts for the three life stages (seedling, sapling and mature tree). The

183

205 tree layer (potential recruitment credit or C_R). Thus, from Eq. 1 it follows that:

206 $N_L = R + D_E + C_R$ (Eq. 2)

| 207 | Isolated habitat relicts can be colonized, and the species potentially able to arrive |
|-----|--|
| 208 | constitute the potential colonization credit (C_C). Together with the local species pool, it |
| 209 | represents the regional species pool N_R , which will be quantified based on the |
| 210 | inventory of 82 plots in this study. |
| 211 | $N_R = N_L + C_C = R + D_E + C_R + C_C$ (Eq. 3) |
| 212 | The local species pool N_L can, therefore, also be calculated as the regional species pool |
| 213 | N _R minus the potential colonization credit: |
| 214 | $N_L = N_R - C_C \tag{Eq. 4}$ |
| 215 | The MRPP and ordination were conducted using PC-ORD 5.0 for Windows (McCune et |
| 216 | al. 1999), circular statistics using Oriana 3.21 (Kovach Computing Services, Anglesey, |
| 217 | Wales) and Wilcoxon rank-sum tests were conducted using SPSS 15.0 for Windows |
| 218 | (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). |
| 219 | |

220 **Results**

221 *Tree species composition changes*

222 The NMDS ordination (cumulative explained variance: 67.8%) revealed a different 223 species composition between the three life stages (Fig. 2). The vectors of these species 224 composition shifts from both seedling and sapling to mature tree layer are not 225 significantly different between the small and the large forest relicts (Length: Wilcoxon 226 rank-sum test: $U_{sapling} = 3$, $p_{sapling} = 0.13$, $U_{seedling} = 10$, $p_{seedling} = 1.00$; Direction: 227 Rayleigh test: $Z_{sapling} = 10.74$, $p_{sapling} < 0.001$; $Z_{seedling} = 6.59$, $p_{seedling} < 0.001$). The 228 MRPP test confirmed that the three different forest strata (mature tree, sapling and 229 seedling) were internally more homogeneous than random expectation, both in large and 230 small forest relicts ($A_{small} = 0.055$, $A_{large} = 0.041$; p < 0.001). The early-successional 231 species Albizia gummifera was positively correlated ($r_s = 0.577$) and the late-232 successional species Cola greenwayi and Craibia zimmermannii were negatively 233 correlated ($r_s = -0.519$ and -0.558) with the first NMDS dimension. C. zimmermannii 234 was positively correlated with the second NMDS dimension ($r_s = 0.581$), as were the 235 other late-successional species *Chrysophyllum gorungosanum* ($r_s = 0.555$), 236 Garcinia volkensii ($r_s = 0.628$), Newtonia buchananii ($r_s = 0.622$), Strombosia scheffleri 237 $(r_s = 0.672)$ and Strychnos mitis $(r_s = 0.574)$ (see Appendix A: Table 2). 238

239 Solving the species accounting equations

The values for the variables in the regional species accounting equation ($N_R = R + D_E + C_R + C_C$) were calculated based on the inventory of 82 plots. The regional species pool N_R was 78 species comprising 71 regenerating species R, seven species facing potential extinction (= extinction debt D_E) and no potential recruitment credit C_R . Assuming an

- allochtonous species colonization of zero (Fig. 1-2b; no invasion of exotic species or
- 245 colonization by new species), the potential colonization credit C_C was set to zero as, per
- 246 definition, the autochtonous colonization on regional level is always zero.
- 247 The local species accounting equation $(N_L = R + D_E + C_R)$ was solved for both the large
- 248 (n = 47) and small (n = 35) forest relicts (Fig. 3). The local species pool N_L of the large
- forest relicts was $61.0 (\pm 7.1)$ species, comprising $46.5 (\pm 8.4)$ regenerating species R, a
- 250 potential extinction debt D_E of 11.5 (± 3.5) species and a potential recruitment credit C_R
- of 3.0 (\pm 2.8), while the potential colonization credit C_C was 17.0 (\pm 7.0). The local
- 252 species pool N_L of the small forest relicts was 20.3 (± 6.5) species, comprising 10.5
- 253 (± 5.0) regenerating species R, a potential extinction debt D_E of 4.1 (± 3.0) species and a
- potential recruitment credit C_R of 5.7 (± 2.5), while the potential colonization credit C_C
- 255 was 57.7 (± 2.5).

257 Discussion

258 Extinction and recruitment at landscape level

259 In this study, 9% of the tree species currently have the potential to become extinct in the

- 260 Taita Hills region, which is similar to the extinction rates of 5 9% in the tropical
- 261 forests of the Amazon Basin (Feeley et al. 2009). However, this is substantially less
- than the 20 30% range reported in Panama (Comita et al. 2007) and Brazil (Hubbell et
- al. 2008). A common characteristic of species facing extinction is that they occur in low
- densities and in a small range, which is typical for many tropical species (Benítez-
- 265 Malvido et al. 2003; Laurance et al. 2006). Therefore, protection and extension of the
- 266 remaining habitats are necessary to maintain viable populations of these species (Fahrig

267 2002; Gibson et al. 2011; Hill & Curran 2001). The regional recruitment credit of zero

- 268 implies that no long-distance colonization by indigenous species occurred in the Taita
- 269 Hills forests in recent years.
- 270
- 271 Species composition in forest relicts

As observed in other tropical forests (Farwig et al. 2008; Hill et al. 2001; Laurance et al.

273 2006; Lawes et al. 2007), several early-successional species dominate the mature tree

274 layer of the smallest relicts. The large-scale logging of valuable timber trees (e.g.

275 Ocotea usambarensis and Podocarpus latifolius) in the past and the large-scale

276 conversion of indigenous forest to farmland have created gaps and edges, in which were

- subsequently colonized by light-demanding (e.g. A. gummifera and Macaranga
- 278 capensis), disturbance-tolerant (e.g. Tabernaemontana stapfiana) or edge-associated

279 species (*Maesa lanceolata*) (Comita et al. 2007; Kirika et al. 2010). Bussmann (2001)

280 found similar successional trajectories and regeneration patterns for other montane

| 281 | forests of Kenya (e.g. Mount Kenya, Mt Nyiru) and Ethiopia (e.g. Menagesha forest). |
|-----|---|
| 282 | Conversely, the large relicts still harbor a large portion of late-successional species, |
| 283 | most likely because natural regeneration of these species was less disturbed. |
| 284 | |
| 285 | Dynamics in forest relicts |
| 286 | The implementation of the local species accounting equation offered ecological insights |
| 287 | into the potential future mature species composition (i.e. regenerating mature trees and |
| 288 | the potential recruitment credit; $R + C_R$) of Taita Hills. Our approach is preferable to the |
| 289 | conventional approaches, which are often exclusively based on mature tree species |
| 290 | composition (i.e. all mature trees, irrespective of their regeneration status; $R + D_E$) |
| 291 | (Hubbell et al. 2008; Metzger et al. 2009; Ramos, Simonetti, Flores & Ramos-Jiliberto |
| 292 | 2008). For Taita Hills, the conventional approach results in an average species richness |
| 293 | of 58 and 15 species for the larger and smaller forest relicts, respectively, whereas our |
| 294 | species accounting approach, which takes potential extinction and recruitment into |
| 295 | account, predicts less species for large fragments (49.5) and more species for small |
| 296 | fragments (16.2). Both large and small relicts are expected to lose approximately 20% |
| 297 | of their current tree species pool. However, a gradual recovery of the small, severely |
| 298 | degraded forest relicts, a successful colonization and negative density-dependent |
| 299 | recruitment of seedlings may mitigate species loss in the small relicts (Comita et al. |
| 300 | 2009; Harms, Wright, Calderon, Hernandez & Herre 2000). The fact that almost 30% of |
| 301 | the species pool in small forest relicts is currently only present in the regeneration layer |
| 302 | may be an early signal of such species recovery (Comita et al. 2007). These specimens |
| 303 | may originate from a seed bank, from mature trees that died afterwards or from other |
| 304 | forest relicts through seed dispersal (Farwig et al. 2008; Kirika et al. 2010; Moran, |
| 305 | Catterall & Kanowski 2009). |
| | |

307 Species accounting equation performance

308 To our knowledge, the species accounting equation is a novel approach to assess the 309 current and future forest relict composition. The advantage of this tool is the integration 310 of the regeneration layer, while many studies (e.g. forest health monitoring projects or 311 conservation plans) are often solely based on the mature tree layer. The inclusion of the 312 regeneration layer and, more specifically, the subdivision of the mature species pool in 313 regenerating and non-regenerating species provide a nuanced assessment of the forest 314 conservation status. The equation is straightforward, which offers an additional 315 advantage, especially in the context of participatory monitoring (Holck 2008). A single 316 inventory is sufficient to solve the equations, and such surveys are feasible by basic 317 untrained observers (Holck 2008; Robinson & Lokina 2012). 318

319 Extinction debt, recruitment and colonization credit are much more developed,

320 theoretically and mathematically, than their implementation in the species accounting

321 equations (Jackson et al. 2010). Extinction calculations remain difficult due to unknown

322 complex biological responses or interactions and uncertain future land cover changes,

323 which can affect species-specific survival and reproduction rates (Feeley et al. 2009;

Hubbell et al. 2008; Mendenhall, Daily & Ehrlich 2012). In our approach, species

325 without regeneration are considered as species with a higher potential to become

326 extinct, especially when no recruits are seen in both the seedling and the sapling layer,

- 327 although the possibility remains that they regenerate during particular times or under
- 328 special environmental conditions. However, the risk of extinction remains extremely

high in small forest relicts, because stochastic or anthropogenic events can suddenlyeradicate the remaining mature populations of a particular species.

331 Future autochtonous colonizations are difficult to predict because not all sites may be 332 suitable for the regeneration of each species from the regional species pool. In our 333 approach, the potential colonization credit represents the maximum potential 334 autochthonous colonization credit and it does not assume that all these species can 335 effectively colonize a patch. In fragmented landscapes and degraded forests such as in 336 the Taita Hills, dispersal and recruitment limitation may substantially limit effective 337 colonization. In this context, the implementation of the concept of 'dark diversity' can 338 be considered, which is the portion of the regional species pool potentially able to occur 339 in a forest relict (Pärtel, Szava-Kovats & Zobel 2011). This would lead to a potential 340 colonization credit, which is the sum of (i) dark diversity or *real* colonization credit and 341 (ii) species that will fail to colonize a relict. This approach requires additional tree trait 342 data (e.g. dispersal capacity or competitiveness and site requirements), environmental 343 data (e.g. species-specific site suitability) and geographical data (e.g. spatial 344 configuration of relicts, distances and physical barriers between relicts). Finally, the 345 potential recruitment credit represents the potential species pool that can enter the 346 mature tree layer. Also these recruits may face several deterministic and stochastic 347 processes. For instance, pathogenic fungi, herbivores, water stress, nutrient or light 348 limitation and mechanical damage due to falling branches and leaves can hamper the 349 seedling growth and sapling recruitment to the life stage of mature trees (Comita et al. 350 2009; Cruz-Rodriguez et al. 2004; Harms et al. 2000). It is almost impossible to study 351 seedling recruitment to the adult stage directly, especially for late-successional tree 352 species, which often survive in seedling banks until a gap is created in the forest canopy

(Farwig et al. 2008). In our observational study, we solved this problem by adopting a stage-for-time approach, which meant including specimens in the sapling stage (i.e. trees between 1 to 5 m) as representatives of the past seedling stage, i.e. specimens that regenerated and survived for several years to decades (Connell & Green 2000). This sapling pool functioned as an indicator of initial successful seedling recruitment to the life stage of mature trees.

359

360 Conservation of forest relicts

361 There is ambiguity about the conservation value of small forest relicts (Zhu, Xu, Wang

362 & Li 2004), but in the Taita Hills, the large tree species diversity in the regeneration

363 layer highlights their conservation potential. The regeneration layer is critical for forest

364 persistence (Lawes et al. 2007) and a successful recruitment of these species into the

365 mature tree layer may enable the small forest relicts to develop into forest communities

that are more similar to undisturbed forests. If human activities that affect tree

367 recruitment are addressed (Aschero & Garcia 2012; Ramirez-Marcial 2003), the small

368 forest relicts of the Taita Hills could contribute to the regional conservation of

369 Afromontane cloud forest biodiversity.

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380

381 Appendix A. Supplementary data

382

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, atXXXXX.

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- 523

525 Figure legends

| 527 | Fig. 1. Conceptual figure representing the current (T_0) and future (T_{+1}) tree species |
|-----|--|
| 528 | composition of a forest relict under different scenarios (hypothetical example). The |
| 529 | event is represented in bold in each scenario, while for the other specimens the status is |
| 530 | kept constant. See Table 1 for calculation examples based on this figure. |
| 531 | |
| 532 | Fig. 2. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) ordination of the plot data (246 |
| 533 | records = 82 plots \times 3 life stages per plot) from 12 forest relicts in the Taita Hills, |
| 534 | Kenya. NMDS ordination was performed simultaneously for three life stages but results |
| 535 | are presented separately for mature trees (A), saplings (B) and seedlings (C). The |
| 536 | NMDS ordination scores are averaged for each forest relict. Two large, less disturbed |
| 537 | forest relicts are presented in black (•); ten smaller, disturbed forest relicts are shown in |
| 538 | white (\circ). NMDS dimension 1 and 2 explained 28.6% and 22.3% of the variance, |
| 539 | respectively. Panel (D) shows species vectors for seven late-successional species (#1-7) |
| 540 | and one early-successional tree species (#8). Only species that were significantly |
| 541 | correlated with at least one NMDS dimension are shown. |
| 542 | |
| 543 | Fig. 3. The relative proportion (%) of regenerating species (R), potential extinction debt |

 (D_E) and potential recruitment credit (C_R) for two large forest relicts and ten small forest 545 relicts of Taita Hills, Kenya.

Current forest composition (T₀)



Future forest composition(T₊₁)

Scenario 1a: Local species extinction



Scenario 2a: Autochtonous colonization



Scenario 3a: Successful species recruitment



Scenario 1b: Regional species extinction



Scenario 2b: Allochtonous colonization



Scenario 3b: Failure species recruitment



547









560 Appendix A: Table 1. Relevant information of the 12 indigenous forest relicts of Taita

561 Hills

| Forest | Area | Number | Elevation | Coordinates | Description |
|----------|------|----------|--------------|-----------------|--|
| | (ha) | of plots | (m) | | |
| Mbololo | 185 | 30 | 1400-1800 | 03°19'S | Largest and most intact forest relict, only |
| | | | | 38°27' Е | Saintpaulia teitensis B.L.Burtt |
| Ngangao | 120 | 17 | 1750-1900 | 03°21'S | Located on an eastern slope of a north-so |
| | | | | 38°20' Е | indigenous forest mixed with plantation f |
| | | | | | surrounded by agricultural land and only |
| | | | | | Meineckia ovata E.A. Bruce |
| Chawia | 86 | 14 | 1500-1600 | 03°28'S | Southernmost, heavily disturbed forest lo |
| | | | | 38°20'E | gentle slopes; plantations of exotic trees i |
| | | | | | by agricultural land |
| Fururu | 8 | 5 | 1650-1750 | 03°25'S | Partly disturbed forest relict with patches |
| | | | | 38°20' Е | small remnant in the east and one in the s |
| Ndiwenyi | 3 | 2 | 1600 | 03°26'S | Heavily disturbed forest relict and surrou |
| | | | | 38°20' Е | |
| Yale | 2 | 2 | 1850 | 03°24'S | Two small forest relicts; located on the ea |
| | | | | 38°20' Е | oriented mountain ridge with very steep s |
| | | | | | with plantations. |
| Macha | 2 | 2 | 1600 | 03°25'S | Located on a west-east oriented ridge; dis |
| | | | | 38°21'E | plantation and agricultural land |
| Mwachora | 2 | 2 | 1650 | 03°25'S | East of Macha; located on steep hilltop; c |
| | | | | 38°22' Е | agricultural land |
| Sagalla | 2 | 2 | 1450-1500 | 03°30'S | Narrow strip of forest which receives mo |
| | | | | 38°35'E | than the other forest relicts; surrounded b |
| | | | | | the isolated Mount Sagalla, 25 km to the |
| | | | | | relicts |
| Vuria | 1 | 2 | 2200 | 03°24'S | Highest peak (2208m) and the westernme |
| | | | | 38°17'E | small forest relict of closed canopy forest |
| | | | | | environment is heavily disturbed and has |
| | | | | | |

| | Ronge | 1 | 2 | 1300 | 03°21'S | Low riverine forest located near a stream; |
|-------|-------------|---|---|------|-----------------|--|
| | | | | | 38°25'E | plantations |
| | Kichuchenyi | 1 | 2 | 1450 | 03°25'S | South of Macha and Mwachora; smallest |
| | | | | | 38°22' Е | as Josa; heavily disturbed and surrounded |
| 562 | | | | | | |
| = < 0 | | | | | | |

| 565 | Appendix A: Table 2. Species list containing the most relevant species, sorted on the |
|-----|---|
| 566 | relative frequency of their basal area (BA). Spearman rank correlations (r_s) between |
| 567 | NMDS plot scores and the species occurrence are shown. Significant correlations ($p <$ |
| 568 | 0.05) with $ r_s > 0.5$ are shown in bold. For each species, its increase (\uparrow), decrease (\downarrow) or |
| 569 | no change (\leftrightarrow) in abundance in the regeneration layer in comparison with the mature |
| 570 | tree layer is shown (column a). Species threatened by potential regional extinction or |
| 571 | species with a potential recruitment credit are represented by D_E or C_R , respectively |
| 572 | (column b) |

| BA | Scientific name Family Habit | | r_s | <i>r</i> _s | a | b | |
|--------|--|---------------|----------------------|-----------------------|--------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| | | | | NMDS | NMDS | | |
| | | | | axis 1 | axis 2 | | |
| 11.3 % | Albizia gummifera | Mimosaceae | Upper-canopy tree | 0.577 | -0.141 | \downarrow | |
| 9.6 % | Tabernaemontana stapfiana | Apocynaceae | Understorey tree | 0.434 | 0.020 | \downarrow | C_R |
| 9.3 % | Newtonia buchananii ³ | Mimosaceae | Upper-canopy tree | -0.241 | 0.622 | \leftrightarrow | |
| 8.7 % | Macaranga capensis | Euphorbiaceae | Canopy tree | 0.276 | 0.116 | \downarrow | |
| 6.7 % | Cola greenwayi ^{1,3} | Sterculiaceae | Canopy tree | -0.519 | 0.376 | 1 | C_R |
| 5.8 % | Millettia oblata ² | Papilionaceae | Canopy tree | 0.073 | -0.273 | \downarrow | C_{R} |
| 5.2 % | Polyscias fulva | Araliaceae | Canopy tree | 0.210 | -0.013 | \downarrow | |
| 4.2 % | Craibia zimmermannii ³ | Papilionaceae | Canopy tree | -0.558 | 0.581 | \leftrightarrow | |
| 3.7 % | Chrysophyllum gorungosanum ³ | Sapotaceae | Canopy tree | -0.196 | 0.555 | 1 | |
| 3.4 % | Maesa lanceolata | Myrsinaceae | Shrub or tree | 0.279 | -0.232 | \leftrightarrow | |
| 2.7 % | Syzygium guineense | Myrtaceae | Upper canopy tree | 0.399 | -0.196 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
| 2.7 % | Strombosia scheffleri ³ | Olaceae | Understorey tree | -0.119 | 0.672 | \leftrightarrow | |
| 1.7 % | Leptonychia usambarensis | Sterculiaceae | Understorey tree | 0.046 | 0.038 | \leftrightarrow | $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{R}}$ |
| 1.6 % | Psychotria sp. | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.315 | -0.160 | 1 | C_{R} |
| 1.5 % | Phoenix reclinata | Palmae | Understorey - canopy | 0.380 | -0.310 | \downarrow | |
| < 1% | Cussonia spicata | Araliaceae | Upper-canopy tree | 0.247 | -0.250 | \downarrow | |
| < 1% | Canthium oligocarpum | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.022 | -0.041 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Aphloia theiformis | Aphloiaceae | Understorey tree | -0.118 | -0.051 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Rytigynia uhligii | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | 0.037 | -0.315 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Garcinia volkensii ³ | Guttiferae | Canopy tree | -0.300 | 0.628 | \leftrightarrow | C_R |
| < 1% | Pauridianta paucinervis | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.318 | 0.209 | \leftrightarrow | $\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{R}}$ |
| < 1% | Lasianthus kilimandscharicus | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.027 | 0.328 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Bersama abyssinica | Melianthaceae | Shrub or tree | 0.046 | -0.056 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |

| < 1% | Teclea nobilis | Rutaceae | Canopy tree | -0.024 | 0.018 | \leftrightarrow | C_{R} |
|------|--|---------------|-----------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| < 1% | Vangueria volkensii | Rubiaceae | Shrub or tree | 0.119 | -0.357 | 1 | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Ficus exasperata | Moraceae | Canopy tree | 0.023 | 0.040 | \downarrow | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Lepidotrichilia volkensii ¹ | Meliaceae | Canopy tree | 0.039 | -0.238 | \leftrightarrow | C_R |
| < 1% | Strychnos mitis ³ | Loganiaceae | Understorey tree | -0.298 | 0.574 | \leftrightarrow | |
| < 1% | Rauvolfia mannii | Apocynaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.253 | -0.148 | ↑ | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Clausena anisata | Rutaceae | Shrub or tree | 0.058 | -0.371 | 1 | C_{R} |
| < 1% | Cremaspora triflora | Rubiaceae | Understorey tree | -0.127 | 0.276 | \downarrow | $D_{\rm E}$ |
| < 1% | Ehretia cymosa | Boraginaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.024 | -0.125 | \leftrightarrow | |
| < 1% | Ficus sur | Moraceae | Canopy tree | 0.126 | 0.011 | \downarrow | $D_{\rm E}$ |
| < 1% | Ficus sycomorus | Moraceae | Canopy tree | 0.139 | -0.011 | \downarrow | $D_{\rm E}$ |
| < 1% | Ilex mitis | Aquifoliaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.047 | 0.129 | \downarrow | $D_{\rm E}$ |
| < 1% | Maesopsis eminii | Rhamnaceae | Canopy tree | 0.129 | -0.062 | \leftrightarrow | |
| < 1% | Nuxia congesta | Loganiaceae | Shrub or tree | -0.007 | 0.122 | \downarrow | D_{E} |
| < 1% | Ouratea schusteri ¹ | Ochnaceae | Understorey tree | -0.035 | 0.136 | \downarrow | \mathbf{D}_{E} |
| < 1% | Schefflera myrianta | Araliaceae | Liana, schrub or tree | 0.033 | -0.140 | \downarrow | $D_{\rm E}$ |
| 574 | 1) Fostown Ano Mountain andomia | amooina | | | | | |

¹⁾ Eastern Arc Mountain endemic species
 ²⁾ Taita Hills endemic species
 ³⁾ Late-successional species which we found in the regeneration layer of the small forest relicts. All these species are strongly affiliated with the large, intact forest relicts