

A 17 Year Successional Enrichment Plantation of Tree Recruitment and Restoration in an African Tropical Forest

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1 Abstract

2 **Key message:** The Enrichment Plantation of Akure Forest Reserve is one of the forests
3 currently experiencing a 17-year-long post-disturbance following deforestation and
4 fragmentation in Nigeria.

5 **Context:** To better understand the contribution of enrichment planting on forest regeneration
6 and restoration, when the Enrichment Plantation after 17 years of post-disturbance was
7 examined.

8 **Aims:** We studied the recruitment drive of aboveground and undergrowth stands of an
9 Enrichment Plantation in the tropical forest reserve. We assess the trees diversity, species
10 compositions, species richness, and growth forms of the vegetations.

11 **Methods:** A total of 3(50m x50m) plots were sampled. A total of 47 aboveground tree
12 species and 45 undergrowth stands from Enrichment Plantation were identified. A statistical
13 analysis were used to quantified the data obtained from this results

14 **Results:** The result shows an increase in the diversity and an even distribution of the species
15 of the aboveground forest trees, compared to the undergrowth stands. Conversely, the
16 aboveground forest trees have lower species richness as compared to the level of
17 undergrowth stands. The sapling density was significantly higher than the aboveground tree
18 of the. It was also observed that the aboveground forest trees and undergrowth stands are
19 somewhat similar in species compositions, which implies that sapling recruitment is a key
20 determinant of the tree species composition of the forest.

21 **Conclusion:** It is then concluded that the method adopted for restoration encouraged species
22 diversity in this successional forest among the aboveground trees species and undergrowth.

23 **Keywords:** aboveground tree, successional forest, disturbed forest, forest regeneration,
24 sapling recruitment, post-disturbance.

25

26 Introduction

27 Forest diversity is a significant role player in the heart of every ecosystem, with various
28 degrees of unmanaged challenges facing flora and fauna ecosystem integrity. These

29 challenges include growing global demand of ecosystem services like food, timber, fuel,
30 water, charcoal, and firewood (Hoffmann and Baumung 2013). Such challenges are however
31 a global struggle against forest disturbance or degradation which may be alleviated via forest
32 recruitment and restoration. Forest disturbance is tentatively associated with the removal of
33 vegetation cover of an ecosystem leading to a change in ecological imbalance. Technically,
34 many countries have developed management that is acceptable in managing forest restoration
35 of degraded or disturbed forest. This management comes via various methods which can
36 either be endemic to a particular geographical location (temperate or tropical), or suitable to
37 the general locality. Among this forest management, Julia Raquel (2013) mentioned a good
38 number of research studies that have tested methods (Gardner et al. 2009; Brancalion et al
39 2013; Melo et al 2013; Bertacchi et al. 2015; Montagnini et al. 1997), of forest management
40 via enrichment plantation. Other research carried out tested endangered seed enrichment
41 plantations in the tropical forest of Tan Phu, Vietnam (Millet, et al. 2013). The natural
42 regeneration of trees was widely used in Zinder and Maradi, Niger. Reji et al. (2009) reported
43 varied remarkable data benefiting and transforming the region.

44 This forest reserve is a popular forest surrounded by two distinct communities previously
45 known to have provided various flora and fauna biodiversity. For various reasons and for a
46 long period of time, the reserve had faced human disturbance resulting in exploitation of its
47 flora and fauna with no adequate regeneration strategies for restoration. As part of strategies
48 to conserve the animal and plant biodiversity of this forest, in 1948 (see details in Ola-Adam.
49 1978), a Strict Nature Reserve (SNR), as a natural high forest, was first demarcated from the
50 forest reserve with the aims of protecting and conserving the indigenous species from human
51 exploitation. In furtherance to conserving the biodiversity of this ecosystem, this forest
52 reserve was further subjected to three monitory reserves. The first reserve, Strict Nature
53 Reserve, earlier mentioned, covered the 32 hectares of natural high forest called Strict Nature
54 Reserve (Queen plot), the buffer zone with 15 hectares. More recently, in 2004, a
55 regeneration method called Enrichment Plantation (Figure 1) was adopted to cover an
56 additional 5 hectares of the forest reserve where removal of selected aboveground trees had
57 occurred. Regenerating trees were manually planted to replace what was removed from the
58 ecosystem. A recent accompanying paper by Omomoh et al. (2019), was used in comparing
59 the current status of this study of a related undisturbed tropical forest as the only existing
60 adjacent natural forest where an unperturbed species composition still exists.

61 Therefore, the objective of this study was to quantify the recruitment and restoration pattern
62 of trees and undergrowth of a 17-year long post-disturbance tropical forest. We assessed the

63 species composition and growth form of both aboveground tree species and undergrowth.
64 Finally, we evaluated whether species richness follows succession.

65 **Materials and Methods**

66 **Study area**

67 The Enrichment Plantation is a remnant portion of the Akure Forest Reserve which was
68 designated for indigenous trees species regeneration and restoration. The regeneration
69 method adopted for the Enrichment Plantation was carried out in 2004 (Figure 1) under the
70 auspices of the Federal Government of Nigeria as a forest assisted-project with the objective
71 of recuperating the forest with regenerating trees. Since then the forest had been under
72 intensive care and protection of the Forestry Research Institute of Nigeria. The seedling ages
73 at the time of planting were not known, but due to its 17 years of post-disturbance of
74 enrichment plantation, this forest can be categorized as an older successional forest type
75 (Perera 2005) or late-successional forest. In this context, we observed that this typical tropical
76 older or late-successional forest is devoid of mid- and early-successional driven trees such as
77 *Trema orientalis* (L.) Blume, *Manihot glaziovii* Müll. Arg., *Alchornea laxiflora* (Benth.) Pax
78 & K. Hoffm etc. The transitional dynamics of early- and mid-successional forest to late-
79 successional forest most times brings about the natural removal of trees of mid-successional
80 species in the late-successional forest. To be more specific in this context, regenerating trees
81 or young trees are referred to as sapling, herbaceous as forbs, climber as a vine, and plants of
82 early-disturbance as pioneer plants, e. g. agricultural weeds.

83

84 The study area (Figure 2) is located in Akure Forest Reserve, Nigeria at N07⁰.2645¹, and
85 E005⁰.03675¹. Akure Forest Reserve is one of the tropical forests in world with a history of
86 deforestation and fragmentation (Adekunle et al. 2013). Before the Enrichment Plantation
87 project, a remnant portion of the Akure Forest Reserve that was known to have undergone a
88 series of anthropogenic activities such as timber logging and exploitation in the hands of
89 illegal fellers was in 2004 projected out for enrichment planting. However, this remnant and
90 fragmented part was located at the adjacent area of the Strict Nature Reserve. The purpose of
91 the enrichment planting was for forest restoration and regeneration. Recent studies described
92 the forest climatic condition of this study (Omomoh 2018, Omomoh et al. 2019, and
93 Omomoh et al. 2020) in detail.

94 **Sampling and Identification techniques**

95 The laying of the plots was carried out using the systematic line transects method as shown in
96 Figure 3. A 50m transect was centrally located in the forest where three sampling plots of 50
97 m x 50 m were laid in alternate sides with the aids of the prismatic compass and ranging
98 poles for positioning.

99 To establish the species composition of the aboveground vegetation, trees, and shrubs, the
100 floristic composition of each study plot was enumerated. The saplings girth >0.8m of woody
101 species at the height ranging from 1-2m were measured with diameter tape. Other non-woody
102 species such as forbs and vines encountered were also counted. Identification of the species
103 and their nomenclatures followed the flora of tropical West Africa (Hutchinson et al 1963)
104 and Tree of Nigeria (Keay 1989), while the leguminous members (Fabaceae) followed the
105 order of new families of the legume phylogeny working group (LPWG) of Azani et al.
106 (2017). Samples of plant species with difficult identification were collected, pressed, and
107 taken to Federal University of Technology, Akure (FUTA) herbarium for proper
108 identification.

109 **Forest Structure**

110 The forest structure was evaluated using the forest parameters and indices. The basal area,
111 relative density, relative dominance, Importance Value (IVI), and family Importance Value
112 (FIV) were determined using the following formula:

113

114 (i) Basal area (BA):

115

$$116 \quad BA = \frac{\pi D^2}{4}$$

117 Where BA = Basal area (m²), D = Diameter at breast height (cm), and $\pi = 3.142$. The
118 total BA for each plot was obtained by adding all trees BA in the plot.

119 (ii) Relative density (%). Brashears et al. (2004):

$$120 \quad RD = \frac{n_i}{N} \times 100$$

121 Where RD is the relative density of the species, n_i is the number of individuals of species i ,
122 and N is the total number of all individual trees.

123 (iii) Species relative dominance (%). Curtis and McIntosh (1950):

124
$$RD_o = \frac{\sum Ba_i \times 100}{\sum Ba_n}$$

125 Where: Ba_i = basal area of individual tree belonging to species i , and Ba_n = stand basal
 126 area.

127 (iv) Family Importance Value (FIV):

128
$$FVI = \frac{(\text{Relative Density} + \text{Relative Dominance})}{2}$$

129 (v). Importance Value Index (IVI). Brashearset al. (2004):

130
$$IVI = \frac{(\text{Relative Density} \times \text{Relative Dominance})}{2}$$

131 **Plant Species Diversity**

132 Diversity indices such as Shannon-Wiener diversity index (Shannon, 1948) and the Species
 133 evenness (Pielou, 1969) were used.

134 (i) Shannon-Wiener diversity index:

135
$$H' = -\sum_{i=1}^S p_i \ln(p_i)$$

136

137 Where H' = Shannon diversity index, S = the total number of species in the community,
 138 p_i = proportion S (species in the family) made up of the i th species, and \ln = natural
 139 logarithm.

140 (ii) The Species evenness (E), using Pielou (1969):

141
$$E_H = \frac{H'}{H_{Max}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^S P_i \ln(P_i)}{\ln(S)}$$

142 These equations still follow the calculation of the Shannon and Wiener function above.

143 **Data analyses**

144 The analysis of variance (One-way ANOVA) was applied to determine the significant
 145 differences between the variances, using IBM SPSS Version 23. The diversity indices were
 146 quantified using 1000 bootstrap replicates in the PAST software 3.0 to observe the forest

147 structure of this study. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) ordination and multivariate
148 clustering graph were also employed to explain the variations of the two physiognomies of
149 the forest.

150 **Results**

151 **Species composition structure**

152 There were sixty-five (65) plant species distributed across forty-nine (49) genera, and twenty-
153 eight (28) families within the entire vegetation of the study area (Table 1).

154 **Trees diversity of the aboveground vegetation**

155 Forty seven forest trees were identified from all three plots of the aboveground study area
156 (Table 2). In the study area (Figure 4), Sterculiaceae, Moraceae, Fabaceae (Caesalpinioideae
157 & Detarioideae), Anacardiaceae, Euphorbiaceae and Ebenaceae, with dominances of 15%,
158 11%, 10%, 9% and 6% (Anacardiaceae & Euphorbiaceae) respectively, are the known
159 dominant families in the forest, with species members falling between the ranges of 6 to 5
160 different species. The Sterculiaceae family recorded the highest number of members (6) with
161 the following species: *Cola gigantea* var. *glabrescens* Brenan & Keay., *Mansonia altissima*
162 (A. Chev.) A. Chev. var. *altissima*, *Pterygota macrocarpa* K. Schum., *Sterculia rhinopetala*
163 K. Schum., *Sterculia tragacantha* Lindl., and *Triplochiton scleroxylon* K. Schum. The
164 Moraceae family has the following 5 member species: *Antiaris toxicaria* var. *africana* Scott-
165 Elliot ex A. Chev., *Ficus exasperata* Vahl., *Milicia excelsa* (Welw.) C.C. Berg., *Myrianthus*
166 *sarboreus* P. Beauv., and *Trilepisium madagascariense* DC. Syn *Bosqueia angolensis*
167 Ficalho., followed by Fabaceae contributing 5 species members viz. *Albizia adianthifolia*
168 (Schum.) W. F. Wight., *Albizia zygia* (DC.) J. F. Macbr. *Anthonotha macrophylla* P. Beauv.,
169 *Anthonotha obanensis* (Bak.f.) J. Léonard., and *Piptadeniastrum africanum* (Hook. f.)
170 Brenan., while the families, Annonaceae and Euphorbiaceae with 4 species members. The
171 only family with intermediate dominant members is Ebenaceae. Other families were found in
172 low dominant members ranging between one to two species (Table 2).

173 The total basal area of the aboveground species per hectare is 109.51. In the Ebenaceae
174 family, the genus *Diospyros* contributed the highest number of three species viz. *Diospyros*
175 *barteri* Hiern, *Diospyros dendo* Welw. ex Hiern., and *Diospyros monbuttensis* Gürke, with a
176 total basal area of 1.25m²ha⁻¹ and relative density of 4 individualsha⁻¹. The most dominant
177 tree species, *Picalima nitida* (Stapf) Th. & H. Dur, contributed a total basal area of
178 6.525m²ha⁻¹ all together with a relative density of 7.95 of individuals.ha⁻¹. The least
179 dominant tree species encountered were 28 with a relative density of one (1) individualha⁻¹
180 (Table 3).

181 Quantitative details of other dominant trees were recorded among the much more mature
182 trees measured. The species with higher relative densities were *Pterygota macrocarpa* K.
183 Schum., *Buchholzia coriacea* Engl., *Celtis zenkeri* Engl., *Sterculia rhinopetala* K. Schum.,
184 and *Trilepisium madagascariense* DC (Table 2). The diameter class was extremely high, with
185 only in 11-20 dbh among all the diameter class distributions recorded (Figure. 5). The two
186 most dominant tree species in this diameter class distribution were *Buchholzia coriacea*
187 Engl., and *Picralima nitida* (Stapf) Th. & H. Dur. The diameter class decreased from 91-100
188 cm to 51-60 cm but was extremely low at 0-10 cm. The analysis of variance for sapling
189 density was varied and significantly higher than the aboveground tree of the forest (one way
190 ANOVA: $P < 0.05$ and $P = 0.000$). The mean \pm standard deviation of 2.41 ± 1.55 tree species
191 was extremely low to what was obtained (17.55 ± 8.06) of tree sapling in the forest structure.
192 From Table 4, the Shannon-Wiener index (H'), Simpson's index (CD), and Evenness index
193 (e) for the tree species were obtained as 3.59, 0.05, and 0.80, respectively.

194 **The recruitment status of forest undergrowth**

195 Forty-five (45) forest undergrowth species were identified in the forest floor of this study,
196 consisting of 6 vines, 3 forbs, and 36 tree saplings (Table 1). One of the most notable
197 differences in this forest undergrowth is the rate of occurrence at which the life forms recruit
198 and regenerate in the forest floor (Figure 6). Our results show that the sudden increase in
199 recruitment level of tree saplings can be linked to natural disappearance or removal of early-
200 and mid-successional species to later stages in succession. Our records show a remarkable
201 impact on the regeneration of life forms owing to a wide increase in sapling occurrence
202 (Figure 6). Of the different life forms observed in the forest undergrowth, tree saplings show
203 the highest percentage of regeneration (54%), followed by vines, 26%, mature trees 14%, and
204 forbs 7%. The result from Table 3 shows the species diversity of forbs and vines in this forest
205 to be extremely low and invariably consists of what flora of West tropical Africa described as
206 forest forbs and vines, namely; *Anchomanes difformis*, *Cyrtosperma senegalense*, *Geophila*,
207 and *Culcasia scandens*. According to the tree sapling record, the undergrowth stand of the
208 total families' dominance was estimated to 97 families (Figure 4). Sterculiaceae is the most
209 dominant family, with 18% families' dominance contributing a total of 22.9% of its
210 individual members (8) to the recruitment status viz. *Cola acuminata*, *Cola gigantea*, *Cola*
211 *hispida*, *Mansonia altissima*, *Pterygota macrocarpa*, *Sterculia rhinopetala*, *Sterculia*
212 *tragacantha*, and *Triplochiton scleroxylon*. Other families with intermediate family
213 dominance were Ebenaceae and Moraceae, with 11.4 % of total individual members (4). On
214 the contrary, relatively low percentage dominant families were recorded in the remaining

215 families i.e. 3(5.7%); Annonaceae and *Ulmaceae*, 2(5.7); *Apocynaceae* and *Sapotaceae*,
216 1(2.9%); *Bombacaceae*, *Boraginaceae*, *Burseraceae*, *Combretaceae*, *Detariodeae*,
217 *Euphorbiaceae*, *Meliaceae*, *Rutaceae*, and *Sapindaceae*. The population structure of
218 undergrowth reveals the density of individuals ha⁻¹ (Table 3) of 11 dominant tree saplings
219 found among the undergrowth was different from what was accounted for in the forest tree
220 viz. *Funtumia elastica* (28), *Anthonotha macrophylla* (16), *Diospyros dendo* (14),
221 *Ricinodendron heudelotii* (18), *Entandrophragma utile* (18), *Trilepisium madagascariense*
222 (28), *Lecaniodiscus cupanioides* (14), *Cola gigantea* (16), *Mansonia altissima* (17), *Sterculia*
223 *tragacantha* (24), *Celtis zenkeri* (28).

224 The one-way cluster analysis shows plants relationships among the different plant types as it
225 is seen in Figure 7. This clustering is relatively smaller in some species associations, like in
226 the cases of the *Celtis zenkeri* and *Trilepisium madagascariense*, *Ceiba pentandra* and
227 *Monodora myristica*, *Anchomanes difformis* and *Piper guineense*, *Celtis mildbraedii* and
228 *Cola acuminata*, *Chrysophyllum albidum* and *Lannea welwitschii*, *Diospyros monbuttensis*
229 and *Ficus exasperata*, *Cola hispida*, *Rhaphidophora africana* and *Ricinodendron heudelotii*.
230 The large clustering were observed among the following plant types: *Bridelia micrantha*,
231 *Albizia zygia*, *Anthonotha obanensis*, *Croton penduliflorus*, *Entandrophragma angolense*,
232 *Glyphaea brevis*, *Lecaniodiscus cupanioides*, *Myrianthus arboreus*, *Pachystela brevipes*,
233 *Picalima nitida*, *Pterygota macrocarpa*, *Sterculia rhinopetala*, and *Terminalia ivorensis*.
234 Several other smaller clusters were found in secondary clusters and sub-clusters consisting of
235 some other closely associated plant species. Results of the PCA show there was a large
236 variation of plant species at the aboveground level as compared with the undergrowth (Figure
237 8). *Pterygota macrocarpa*, *Picalima nitida*, and *Culcasia scandens* were the outliers of the
238 95% eclipse.

239 **Discussion**

240 The growing number of plants and tree species of aboveground trees and undergrowth stands
241 in a 17 year long enrichment plantation establishment of a tropical forest has revealed a
242 significant difference in species recruitment and aboveground trees of the successional forest.
243 Our findings show that the tropical forest is the most diverse forest known to have the family
244 Sterculiaceae members as major dominant in tree diversity (Omomoh et al. 2019, Adekunle
245 et al. 2013, Onyekwelu et al. 2008) which substantiate what Cronquist (1981) said about
246 Sterculiaceae mainly found in tropical and subtropical regions. Sterculiaceae had higher

247 members of tree species diversity. However, our study confirmed the comparable results of
248 Sharkar and Devi (2014) in a semi-tropical forest where Moraceae, Meliaceae, Apocynaceae,
249 Euphorbiaceae, Ebenaceae, and Fabaceae were found to be the major family species drivers
250 in the restoration status of a tropical semi-evergreen forest of Assam, Northeast India.

251 This study further demonstrated the seedling diversity of non-woody species of undergrowth
252 identified at the soil surface level in which Araceae, a forest non-woody family, were
253 identified as the second highest dominant species, e.g.: *Anchomanes difformis*, *Culcasia*
254 *scandens*, *Cyrtosperma senegalense*, and *Rhaphidophora africana*. The impact of the
255 dominant species, with the exception of *Anchomanes difformis*, on the annual undergrowth is
256 the natural regenerative ability to establish as a long-lived understorey in a tropical humid
257 rainforest. In general, when pioneer species of early-successional forest (Omomoh et al.
258 2020) decrease, i.e. the agricultural weeds give ways to forest tree seedlings/saplings, hence
259 an indication of the forest transitioning to a stable forest. It is clear from our studies that the
260 dense natural regeneration of saplings increases in association with abundant light
261 availability, an important factor precluding regeneration (Covey et al. 2015; De Lombaerde et
262 al. 2020) before the removal of overstorey trees. The *Geophila obvallata* (Table 3), a forest
263 non-woody creeping prostrate herb usually found in the stable forest floor and often around
264 the base of tropical forest trees, confirms the forest becoming species-rich in plant diversity.
265 This can be categorized as a late-successional forest based on the associated forest attribute
266 described in Perera (2005). The enrichment plantation shows us that the agricultural weeds
267 associated with and peculiar to young successional forest and forest plantation (Omomoh et
268 al. 2020) are nearly absent in this forest type. This study is in support of Perera's (2005)
269 finding that the common herbaceous density decreases after 15 years in the older successive
270 forest and natural high forest with very low seed densities. The total basal area of the
271 aboveground tree species in this study area is 109.51, which was significantly lower than
272 what was obtained in Strict Nature Reserve, Akure (Omomoh et al. 2019). The differences
273 can be seen in the disparity between the tree's diameter class categories. The small diameter
274 tree species pre-dominate the successional forest. The individual basal area per hectare falls
275 between the range of the 11-30 cm diameter class which, nevertheless, was quite similar to
276 what was reported in the older natural high forest (Omomoh et al. 2019 and Adekunle et al.
277 2013). Interestingly, this is in agreement with Sokpon & Biaou's (2012) description where
278 diameter classes with continuous recruitment and expanding population are categorized as
279 stable or expanding species. Similarly, Pugu Forest Reserves (Rocky & Mligo 2012) reported

280 a diameter size class, 11 to 15 cm (Figure 4) in Tanzania. Moreso, in Assam, northeast India,
281 (Sarkar & Devi. 2014), the diameter class in the tropical forest of Hologapar Gibbon
282 Wildlife Sanctuary falls within the smaller diameter class.

283 Mamo et al (2012)'s report also shows us the highest diameter percentage distribution among
284 the smaller DBH class of 2-10 cm in Wondo Genet Afromontane forest. Likewise, in
285 Ethiopia, the older successional forest was reported to have more individual trees ranging in
286 average from 5 to 20 diameter classes. However, looking at the result of this study (Figure 5),
287 the floristic composition and forest structure of this forest were consistent except for where
288 there were fewer or no older trees to compete with. The trees with the highest Importance
289 Value Index (IVI) value, *Trilepisium madagascariense* (29.84), have 4 individual plants ha⁻¹,
290 followed by *Pterygota macrocarpa*(19.41), with 6 individual plants ha⁻¹. These two tree
291 species are highly economic due to the high-density properties in Africa, and for that, they
292 are mostly found in the multi-species rich ecosystem. Despite forest disturbance of the trees
293 composition in the study area, the result obtained from the Importance Value Index of
294 selected trees species such as *Mansonia altissima*, *Celtis zenkeri*, and *Triplochiton*
295 *scleroxylon*, are still of little variance to what was obtained from other studies (Omomoh et
296 al. 2019, Onyekwelu et al. 2008). The exceptions to this were *Rothmannia whitfieldii*, *Cola*
297 *gigantea* and *Pterygota macrocarpa*, with higher Importance Value Index in this study area
298 (Table 2).

299 Apparently, others with a relatively higher number of individual plants ha⁻¹ across the
300 different dominant species were observed to have low IVI values. This can be attributed to
301 the extremely low cumulative DBH. The ability of a tree to increase in population size and
302 increase in girth within a space of time depends on the objective of forest management. Poor
303 or lack of management was recognized as a factor in an older Forest Plantation in Nigeria
304 where the issue of thinning since establishment was causing retarded growth to the many
305 species of ground flora (Onyekwelu et al. 2010). Other factors are environmental stress and
306 anthropogenic disturbance at the young stages of any species (Sarkar & Devi 2014).

307 Several dominant tree species which were highly valued as timber trees in natural tropical
308 forests (Omomoh et al. 2019) are apparently the natural history (Brudvig et al. 2017) of
309 enrichment plantation during pre-disturbance. Our studies revealed that the timber trees were
310 under-represented and somewhat well represented among the saplings (Nuñez et al. 2019).
311 This may have supported the efforts of enrichment plantation in this forest to restore tree

312 diversity (Bertacchi et al. 2015). The low number of aboveground trees per hectare has
313 created a light opening. Its incursion may have contributed more to the increase in seedling
314 regeneration and sapling recruitment (Webb & Sah 2003) than any other life form. The tree
315 recruitment of an ecosystem depends greatly on the population structure and level of
316 disturbance (Sarkar & Devi 2014). An ecosystem with a mild disturbance would regenerate
317 easily at a shorter period of time than seriously disturbed vegetation (Ganlin et al. 2006). The
318 result shows that aboveground forest trees are somewhat diverse and more even than
319 undergrowth species except in the species richness, where forest undergrowth was higher
320 than the aboveground forest trees. This diversity index (H^1) shows little dissimilarity between
321 the aboveground forest trees and undergrowth. Diversity indices of a typical tropical forest
322 are generally range from 1.5 to 3.5 and it is also exceptionally rare to exceed normal range
323 but rarely exceed 4.5 (Kent & Coker 1992). In this study, the undergrowth Shannon-Wiener
324 diversity index value (3.37) falls within the normal range. On the other hand, aboveground
325 trees diversity (H^1) is higher and exceeds the normal range reported by Kent & Coker (1992).
326 This result is not in any way at variance with what was published on Queen's, Oluwa and
327 Elephant forest by Onyekwulu et al. (2008). It is even in more consonance with other studies
328 in Indian forests (Sarkar & Devi 2014; Parthasarathy et al. 1992; Visalakshi 1995) where the
329 diversity index ranged from 0.83 to 4.1. There are species consistence in species evenness
330 index values of aboveground forest (0.8) and undergrowth (0.6). This was reported in Ganlin
331 et al. (2006), & Palmer et al. (2000), where species richness was higher in a low disturbance.
332 However, there is no significant difference in the relative density between the forest trees and
333 saplings ($P= 0.341$). This confirmed that the aboveground trees and saplings are dissimilar in
334 species abundance, which apparently means that sapling density is surviving the tree species
335 composition of the forest.

336 **Recommendation**

337 A collaborative effort on ecosystem restoration and sustainable forest management can
338 intensify the biodiversity integrity of disturbed forests for the next decade to come (Bernier et
339 al. 2017, Chazdon et al. 2009). We recommend that a successional forest would need a
340 collaborative forest management campaign to reduce and stop anthropogenic disturbance
341 such as nomad colony, herdsmen, and cattle rearers from infringing and settling into
342 susceptible forests. These are the current and prevailing factors affecting African forests.

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349 **Ethics approval/declarations** Not applicable

350 **Author contributions** Contributions of all the co-authors. BE conceived the ideas, designed
351 methodology, identified all the plants to species and family level and collected the data
352 analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript and LB proofread the manuscript and added
353 significant keyword to the write up. GA and VAJ supervised the study and also assisted in the
354 statistical analysis. All authors contributed to the final draft and gave final approval for
355 publication.

356 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

357 **Data Availability** Nil

358 **References**

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500

501 Table 1: Summary of plant species diversity in the study areas

No	Scientific names	A	B
1	<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i> (Schum.) W. F. Wight	X	-
2	<i>Albizia zygia</i> (DC.) J. F. Macbr.	X	-
3	<i>Anchomanes difformis</i> var. <i>difformis</i> Hepper	-	X
4	<i>Annickia chlorantha</i> (Oliv.) Setten & Maa Syn <i>Enantia chlorantha</i> Oliv	X	X
5	<i>Anthonotha macrophylla</i> P. Beauv.	X	X
6	<i>Anthonotha obanensis</i> (Bak. f.) J. Léonard	X	-
7	<i>Antiaris toxicaria</i> var. <i>africana</i> Scott-Elliot ex A. Chev.	X	-
8	<i>Antidesma laciniatum</i> Müll. Arg. var. <i>Laciniatum</i>	X	-

9	<i>Bridelia micrantha</i> (Hochst.) Baill.	X	-
10	<i>Buchholzia coriacea</i> Engl.	X	-
11	<i>Canarium schweinfurthii</i> Engl.	X	X
12	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (Linn.) Gaertn.	X	X
13	<i>Celtis mildbraedii</i> Engl.	X	X
14	<i>Celtis philippensis</i> Blanco syn <i>Celtis brownii</i> Rendle	X	X
15	<i>Celtis zenkeri</i> Engl.	X	X
16	<i>Chrysophyllum albidum</i> G. Don	-	X
17	<i>Chrysophyllum perpulchrum</i> Mildbr. ex Hutch. & Dalz.	-	X
18	<i>Cola acuminata</i> (P. Beauv.) Schott & Endl.	-	X
19	<i>Cola gigantea</i> var. <i>glabrescens</i> Brenan & Keay	X	X
20	<i>Cola hispida</i> Brenan & Keay	-	X
21	<i>Cola millenii</i> K. Schum.	X	-
22	<i>Cordia millenii</i> Bak.	X	X
23	<i>Croton penduliflorus</i> Hutch.	X	-
24	<i>Culcasia scandens</i> P. Beauv.	-	X
25	<i>Cyrtosperma senegalense</i> (Schott) Engl.	-	X
26	<i>Diospyros barteri</i> Hiern	X	-
27	<i>Diospyros dendo</i> Welw. ex Hiern	X	X
28	<i>Diospyros mespiliformis</i> Hochst. ex A. DC.	-	X
29	<i>Diospyros monbuttensis</i> Gürke	X	X
30	<i>Diospyros suaveolens</i> Gürke	-	X
31	<i>Entandrophragma angolense</i> (Welw.) C. DC.	X	-
32	<i>Entandrophragma utile</i> (Dawe & Sprague) Sprague	X	X
33	<i>Ficus exasperata</i> Vahl	X	X
34	<i>Funtumia elastica</i> (Preuss) Stapf	X	X
35	<i>Geophila obvallata</i> (Schumach.) F. Didr.	-	X
36	<i>Glyphaea brevis</i> (Spreng.) Monachino	X	-
37	<i>Hexalobus crispiflorus</i> A. Rich.	X	X
38	<i>Irvingia wombolu</i> Vermoesen	X	-
39	<i>Khaya grandifoliola</i> C. DC.	-	X
40	<i>Lannea welwitschii</i> (Hiern) Engl.	X	-
41	<i>Lecaniodiscus cupanioides</i> Planch. ex Benth.	-	X

42	<i>Mansonia altissima</i> (A. Chev.) A. Chev. var. <i>altissima</i>	X	X
43	<i>Milicia excelsa</i> (Welw.) C.C. Berg	X	X
44	<i>Monodora myristica</i> (Gaertn.) Dunal	X	X
45	<i>Monodora tenuifolia</i> Benth.	X	-
46	<i>Myrianthus arboreus</i> P. Beauv.	X	X
47	<i>Napoleona imperialis</i> P. Beauv.	X	-
48	<i>Pachystela brevipes</i> . P. syn <i>Synsepalum brevipes</i> (Baker) T. D. Pennington	X	-
49	<i>Picralima nitida</i> (Stapf) Th. & H. Dur.	X	X
50	<i>Piper capense</i> Linn. F	-	X
51	<i>Piper guineense</i> Schum. & Thonn.	-	X
52	<i>Piptadeniastrum africanum</i> (Hook. f.) Brenan	X	-
53	<i>Pterygota macrocarpa</i> K. Schum.	X	X
54	<i>Pyrenacantha staudtii</i> (Engl.) Engl.	-	X
55	<i>Rhaphidophora africana</i> N. E. Br	-	X
56	<i>Ricinodendron heudelotii</i> (Baill.) Pierre ex Pax	X	X
57	<i>Rothmannia whitfieldii</i> (Lindl.) Dandy	X	-
58	<i>Sterculia rhinopetala</i> K. Schum.	X	X
59	<i>Sterculia tragacantha</i> Lindl.	X	X
60	<i>Symphonia globulifera</i> Linn. f.	X	-
61	<i>Terminalia ivorensis</i> A. Chev.	-	X
62	<i>Tetracera potatoria</i> Afzel. ex G. Don	-	X
63	<i>Trilepisium madagascariense</i> DC. syn <i>Bosqueia angolensis</i> Ficalho	X	X
64	<i>Triplochiton scleroxylon</i> K. Schum.	X	X
65	<i>Zanthoxylum rubescens</i> Planch. ex Hook. f.	X	X
	Total No. of plant species	47	45

502 A= Aboveground tree, B= Undergrowth plant species, X= Species present, - = Species absent

503 Table 2: Tree species diversity, relative frequency, volume and diversity index of the

504 Enrichment Forest Plantation

Family	Scientific Name	Ha ⁻¹	Baha ⁻¹	RD	RD ₀	IVI	FVI
Guttiferae	<i>Symphonia globulifera</i> Linn. f.	1	2.87	1.14	2.62	1.49	1.8
Irvingiaceae	<i>Irvingia wombolu</i> Vermoesen	1	0.58	1.14	0.53	0.30	0.83
Anacardiaceae	<i>Lannea welwitschii</i> (Hiern) Engl.	1	2.61	1.14	2.39	1.36	1.76
	<i>Annickia chlorantha</i> (Oliv.) Setten & Maa syn <i>enantia</i>						
	<i>chlorantha</i> Oliv	1	0.17	1.14	0.15	0.09	0.65

Annonaceae	<i>Hexalobus crispiflorus</i> A. Rich.	1	0.31	1.14	0.28	0.16	0.71
	<i>Monodora myristica</i> (Gaertn.) Dunal	1	1.44	1.14	1.32	0.75	1.23
	<i>Monodora tenuifolia</i> Benth.	1	0.13	1.14	0.12	0.07	0.63
Apocynaceae	<i>Funtumia elastica</i> (Preuss) Stapf	3	2.04	3.41	1.86	3.17	2.63
	<i>Picralima nitida</i> (Stapf) Th. & H. Dur.	7	1.59	7.95	1.45	5.77	4.70
Bombacaceae	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (Linn.) Gaertn.	1	0.27	1.14	0.25	0.14	0.69
Boraginaceae	<i>Cordia millenii</i> Bak.	1	6.77	1.14	6.18	3.51	3.66
Burseraceae	<i>Canarium schweinfurthii</i> Engl.	2	0.85	2.27	0.78	0.89	1.53
Caesalpinioideae	<i>Albizia adianthifolia</i> (Schum.) W. F. Wight	2	1.98	2.27	1.80	2.05	2.04
	<i>Albizia zygia</i> (DC.) J. F. Macbr.	1	0.84	1.14	0.77	0.44	0.95
	<i>Piptadeniastrum africanum</i> (Hook. f.) Brenan	1	0.24	1.14	0.22	0.13	0.68
Capparidaceae	<i>Buchholzia coriacea</i> Engl.	5	0.66	5.68	0.61	1.72	3.14
Detarioideae	<i>Anthonotha macrophylla</i> P. Beauv.	2	0.72	2.27	0.65	0.74	1.46
	<i>Anthonotha obanensis</i> (Bak. f.) J. Léonard	1	0.18	1.14	0.16	0.09	0.65
Ebenaceae	<i>Diospyros barteri</i> Hiern	2	0.28	2.27	0.26	0.29	1.27
	<i>Diospyros dendo</i> Welw. ex Hiern	1	0.71	1.14	0.65	0.37	0.89
	<i>Diospyros monbuttensis</i> Gürke	1	0.26	1.14	0.24	0.14	0.69
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Antidesma laciniatum</i> Müll. Arg. var. <i>laciniatum</i>	2	0.82	2.27	0.75	0.85	1.51
	<i>Bridelia micrantha</i> (Hochst.) Baill.	1	0.65	1.14	0.60	0.34	0.87
	<i>Croton penduliflorus</i> Hutch.	1	2.58	1.14	2.36	1.34	1.75
	<i>Ricinodendron heudelotii</i> (Baill.) Pierre ex Pax	1	12.0	1.14	10.9	6.23	6.05
Lecythidaceae	<i>Napoleona imperialis</i> P. Beauv.	1	0.14	1.14	0.12	0.07	0.63
Meliaceae	<i>Entandrophragma angolense</i> (Welw.) C. DC.	1	6.73	1.14	6.15	3.49	3.64
	<i>Entandrophragma utile</i> (Dawe & Sprague) Sprague	2	1.34	2.27	1.23	1.39	1.75
	<i>Antiaris toxicaria</i> var. <i>africana</i> Scott-Elliot ex A. Chev.	2	1.78	2.27	1.62	1.84	1.95
Moraceae	<i>Ficus exasperata</i> Vahl	1	1.90	1.14	1.74	0.99	1.44
	<i>Milicia excelsa</i> (Welw.) C.C. Berg	1	0.36	1.14	0.33	0.19	0.73
	<i>Myrianthus arboreus</i> P. Beauv.	2	0.45	2.27	0.41	0.46	1.34
	<i>Trilepisium madagascariense</i> DC. syn <i>Bosqueia angolensis</i> Ficalho	4	14.4	4.55	13.1	29.8	8.84
Rubiaceae	<i>Rothmannia whitfieldii</i> (Lindl.) Dandy	1	0.14	1.14	0.13	0.07	0.63
Rutaceae	<i>Zanthoxylum rubescens</i> Planch. ex Hook. f.	1	1.94	1.14	1.77	1.01	1.45
Sapotaceae	<i>Chrysophyllum albidum</i> G. Don	1	2.74	1.14	2.50	1.42	1.82
	<i>Pachystela brevipes</i> . P. syn <i>Synsepalum brevipes</i> (Baker) T. D. Pennington	1	0.80	1.14	0.73	0.41	0.93

Sterculiaceae	<i>Cola gigantea</i> A. Chev. var. <i>Gigantea</i>	3	8.81	3.41	8.04	13.7	5.73
	<i>Cola millenii</i> K. Schum.	2	0.60	2.27	0.55	0.63	1.41
	<i>Mansonia altissima</i> (A. Chev.) A. Chev. var. <i>altissima</i>	3	2.57	3.41	2.35	4.00	2.88
	<i>Pterygota macrocarpa</i> K. Schum.	6	6.23	6.82	5.69	19.4	6.26
	<i>Sterculia rhinopetala</i> K. Schum.	4	4.41	4.55	4.03	9.15	4.29
	<i>Sterculia tragacantha</i> Lindl.	2	4.21	2.27	3.85	4.37	3.06
	<i>Triplochiton scleroxylon</i> K. Schum.	2	4.82	2.27	4.40	5.00	3.34
Tiliaceae	<i>Glyphaea brevis</i> (Spreng.) Monachino	1	0.25	1.14	0.22	0.13	0.68
Ulmaceae	<i>Celtis philippensis</i> Blanco syn <i>Celtis brownii</i> Rendle	1	0.40	1.14	0.36	0.21	0.75
	<i>Celtis zenkeri</i> Engl.	4	2.94	4.55	2.68	6.09	3.61

88

505

506 Table 3: Summary of floristic Composition of undergrowths Enrichment Plantation

Family	Name	Life form	Ha ⁻¹	RD
Annonaceae	<i>Annickia chlorantha</i> (Oliv.) Setten & Maa Syn <i>Enantia chlorantha</i> Oliv	Sapling	3	0.540
	<i>Hexalobus crispiflorus</i> A. Rich.	Sapling	5	0.899
	<i>Monodora myristica</i> (Gaertn.) Dunal	Sapling	7	1.259
Apocynaceae	<i>Funtumia elastica</i> (Preuss) Stapf	Sapling	28	5.036
	<i>Picralima nitida</i> (Stapf) Th. & H. Dur.	Sapling	11	1.978
Araceae	<i>Anchomanes difformis</i> var. <i>difformis</i> Hepper	Herb	9	1.619
	<i>Culcasia scandens</i> P. Beauv.	Climber	104	18.71
	<i>Cyrtosperma senegalense</i> (Schott) Engl.	Herb	18	3.237
	<i>Rhaphidophora africana</i> N. E. Br	Climber	11	1.978
Bombacaceae	<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (Linn.) Gaertn.	Sapling	7	1.259
Boraginaceae	<i>Cordia millenii</i> Bak.	Sapling	1	0.18
Burseraceae	<i>Canarium schweinfurthii</i> Engl.	Sapling	4	0.719
Combretaceae	<i>Terminalia ivorensis</i> A. Chev.	Sapling	2	0.36
Deteriodeae	<i>Anthothena macrophylla</i> P. Beauv.	Sapling	16	2.878
Dilleniaceae	<i>Tetracera potatoria</i> Afzel. ex G. Don	Climber	13	2.338
Ebenaceae	<i>Diospyros dendo</i> Welw. ex Hiern	Sapling	14	2.518
	<i>Diospyros mespiliformis</i> Hochst. ex A. DC.	Sapling	1	0.18
	<i>Diospyros monbuttensis</i> Gürke	Sapling	2	0.36
	<i>Diospyros suaveolens</i> Gürke	Sapling	7	1.259
Euphorbiaceae	<i>Ricinodendron heudelotii</i> (Baill.) Pierre ex Pax	Sapling	18	3.237
Icacinaceae	<i>Pyrenacantha staudtii</i> (Engl.) Engl.	Climber	11	1.978
Meliaceae	<i>Entandrophragma utile</i> (Dawe & Sprague) Sprague	Sapling	18	3.237

	<i>Khaya grandifoliola</i> C. DC.	Sapling	3	0.54
Moraceae	<i>Ficus exasperata</i> Vahl	Sapling	2	0.36
	<i>Milicia excelsa</i> (Welw.) C.C. Berg	Sapling	10	1.799
	<i>Myrianthus arboreus</i> P. Beauv.	Sapling	13	2.338
	<i>Trilepisium madagascariense</i> DC.	Sapling	28	5.036
Piperaceae	<i>Piper capense</i> Linn. F	Climber	9	1.619
	<i>Piper guineense</i> Schum. & Thonn.	Climber	23	4.137
Rubiaceae	<i>Geophila obvallata</i> (Schumach.) F. Didr.	Herb	17	3.058
Rutaceae	<i>Zanthoxylum rubescens</i> Planch. ex Hook. f.	Sapling	4	0.719
Sapindaceae	<i>Lecaniodiscus cupanioides</i> Planch. ex Benth.	Sapling	14	2.518
Sapotaceae	<i>Chrysophyllum albidum</i> G. Don	Sapling	3	0.54
	<i>Chrysophyllum perpulchrum</i> Mildbr. ex Hutch. & Dalz.	Sapling	8	1.439
Sterculiaceae	<i>Cola acuminata</i> (P. Beauv.) Schott & Endl.	Sapling	4	0.719
	<i>Cola gigantea</i> var. <i>glabrescens</i> Brenan & Keay	Sapling	16	2.878
	<i>Cola hispida</i> Brenan & Keay	Sapling	11	1.978
	<i>Mansonia altissima</i> (A. Chev.) A. Chev. var. <i>altissima</i>	Sapling	17	3.058
	<i>Pterygota macrocarpa</i> K. Schum.	Sapling	5	0.899
	<i>Sterculia rhinopetala</i> K. Schum.	Sapling	7	1.259
	<i>Sterculia tragacantha</i> Lindl.	Sapling	24	4.317
	<i>Triplochiton scleroxylon</i> K. Schum.	Sapling	7	1.259
Ulmaceae	<i>Celtis mildbraedii</i> Engl.	Sapling	4	0.719
	<i>Celtis philippensis</i> Blanco	Sapling	9	1.619
	<i>Celtis zenkeri</i> Engl.	Sapling	28	5.036
			576	

507

508 Table 4: Summary of the results of various diversity indices conducted

Forest Structure	Aboveground	Undergrowth
Taxa_S	47	45
Individuals	88	576
Dominance_D	0.03306	0.05533
Simpson_1-D	0.9669	0.9447
Shannon_H	3.634	3.374
Evenness_e^H/S	0.8058	0.6485
Species richness_M	19.6	90.5
Margalef	10.27	6.922

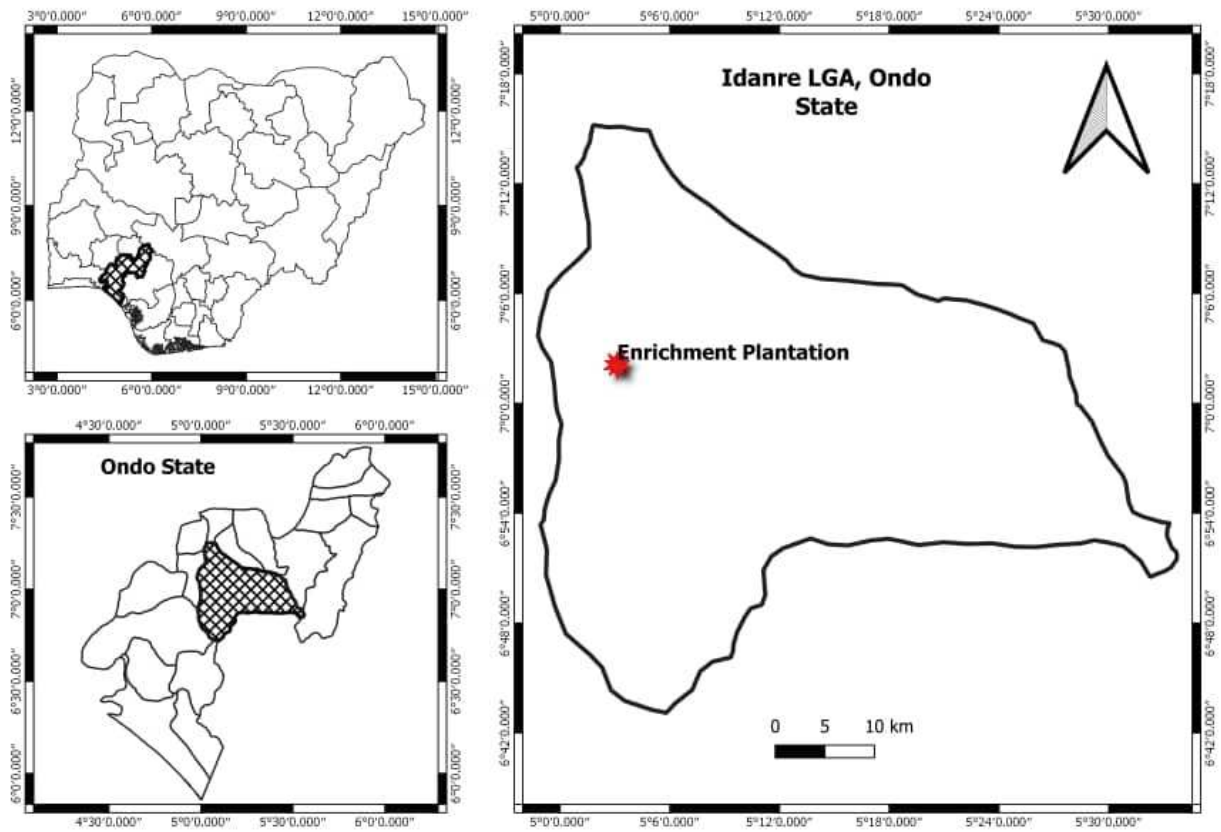
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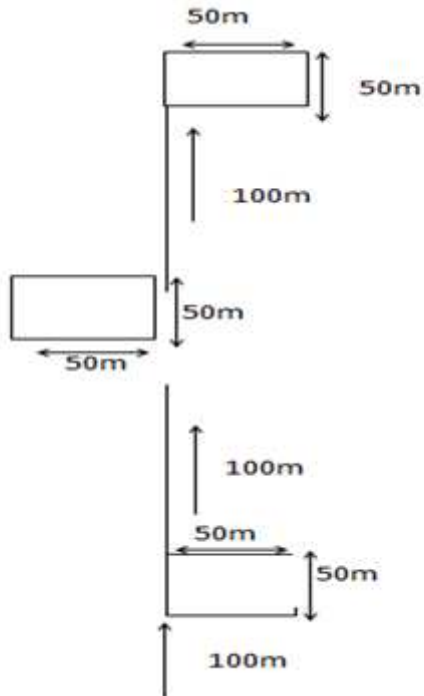
511 Figure 1: The Enrichment Plantation showing the study area

Location Map of Study Area



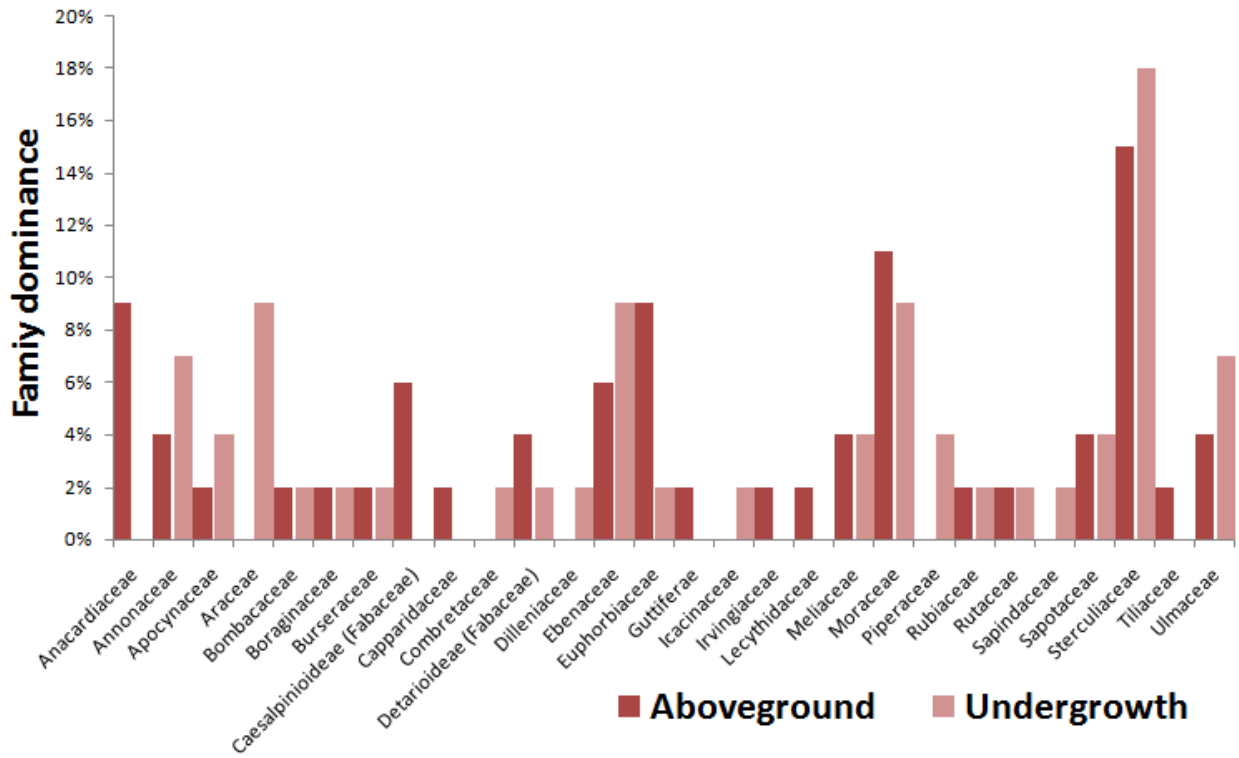
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513 Figure 2: Map of the study area

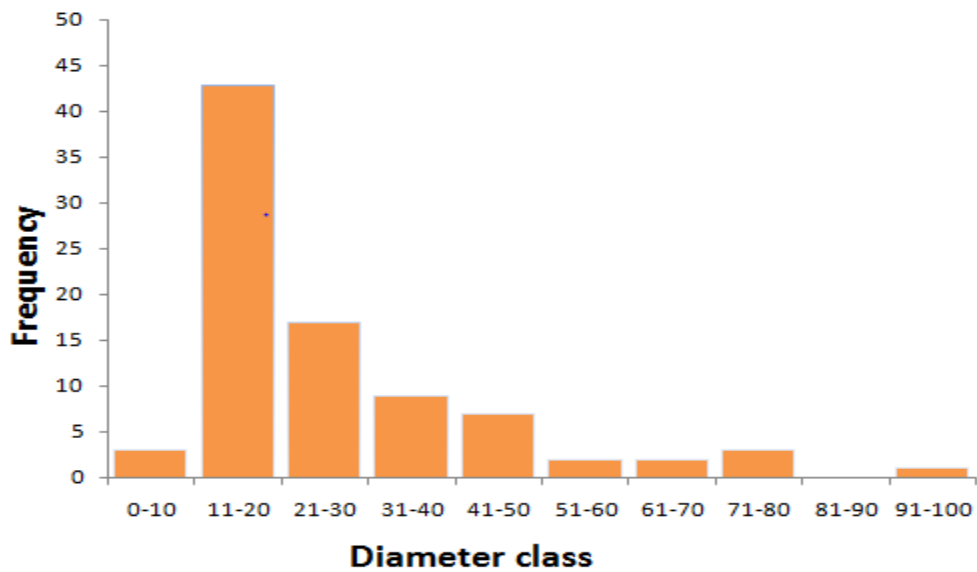


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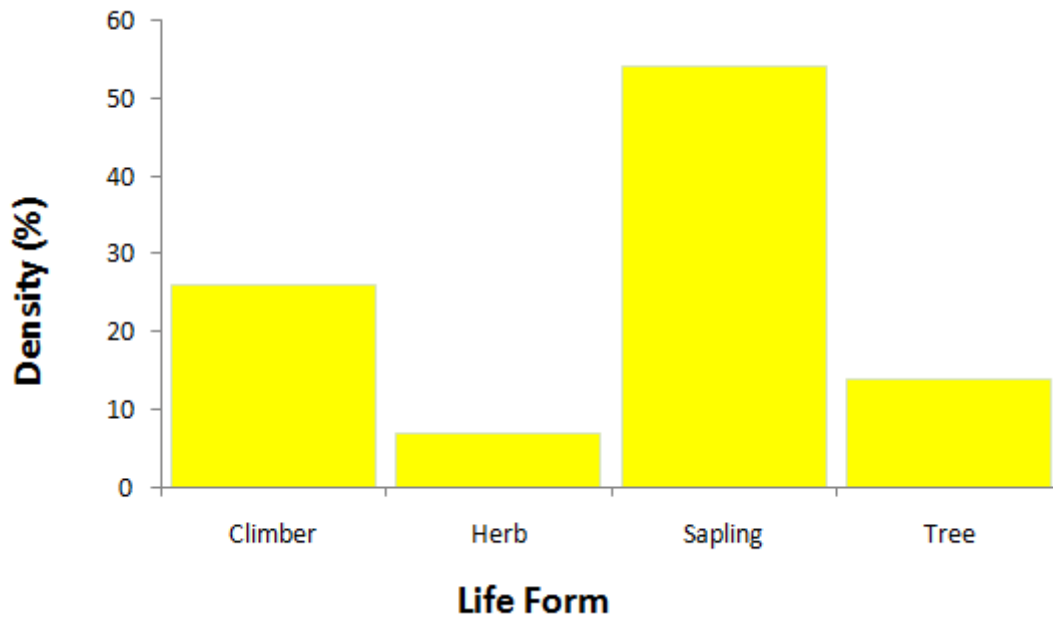
515 Figure 3: Systematic line transects sampling technique for the study area



516
 517 Figure 4: The family composition in the study areas consisting of total number of tree
 518 families.

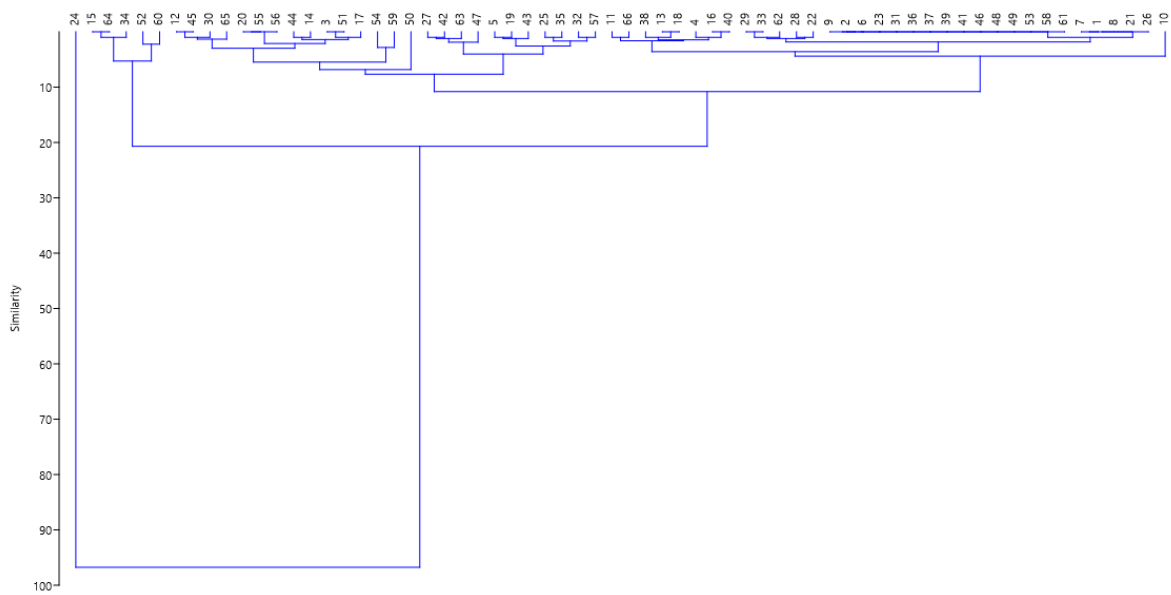


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 520 Figure 5: Diameter class showing diameter distribution among the aboveground tree species
 521 in the study area



522

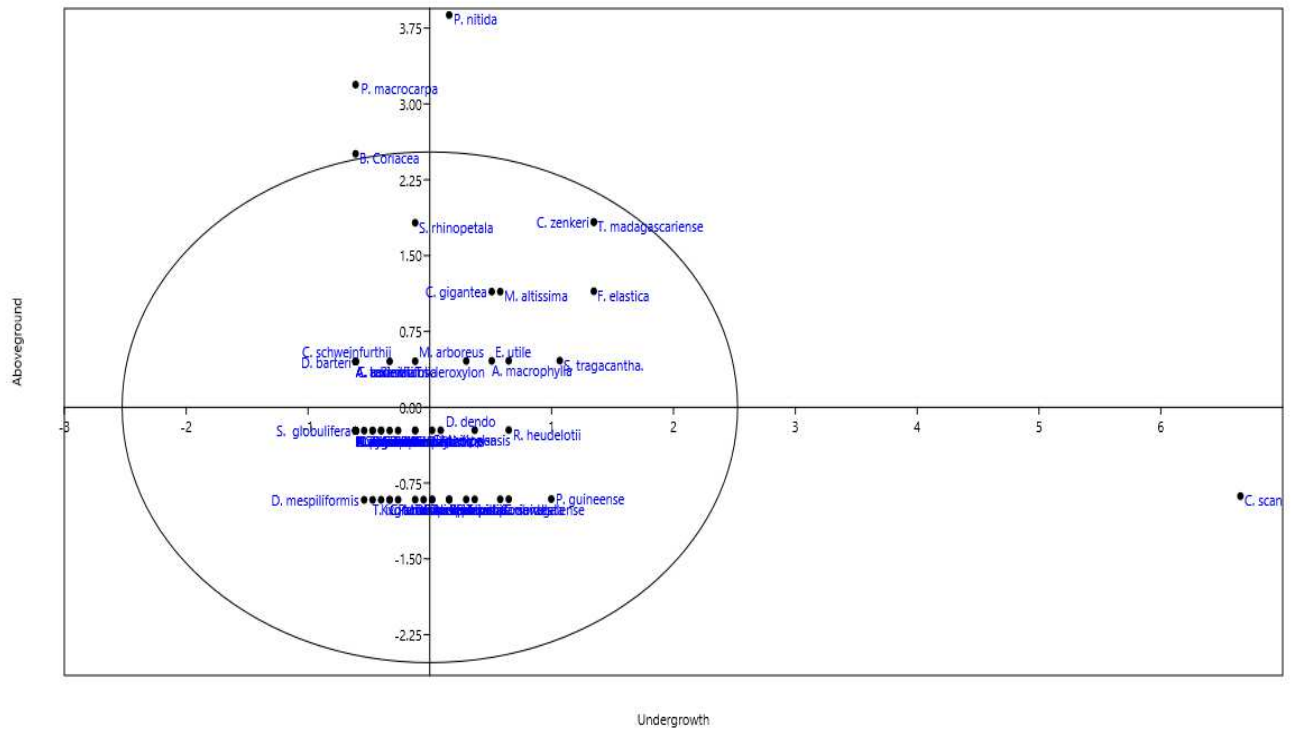
523 Figure 6: The different life forms of the Enrichment Plantation



524

525 Figure 7: Clustering of plant species populations in the study area. Each number represents

526 the species name shown in Table 1.



527

528 Figure 8: Principal Component Analysis showing variations in the distribution of plant
 529 species with regards to the aboveground and undergrowth.

530

531

Figures



Figure 1

The Enrichment Plantation showing the study area

Location Map of Study Area

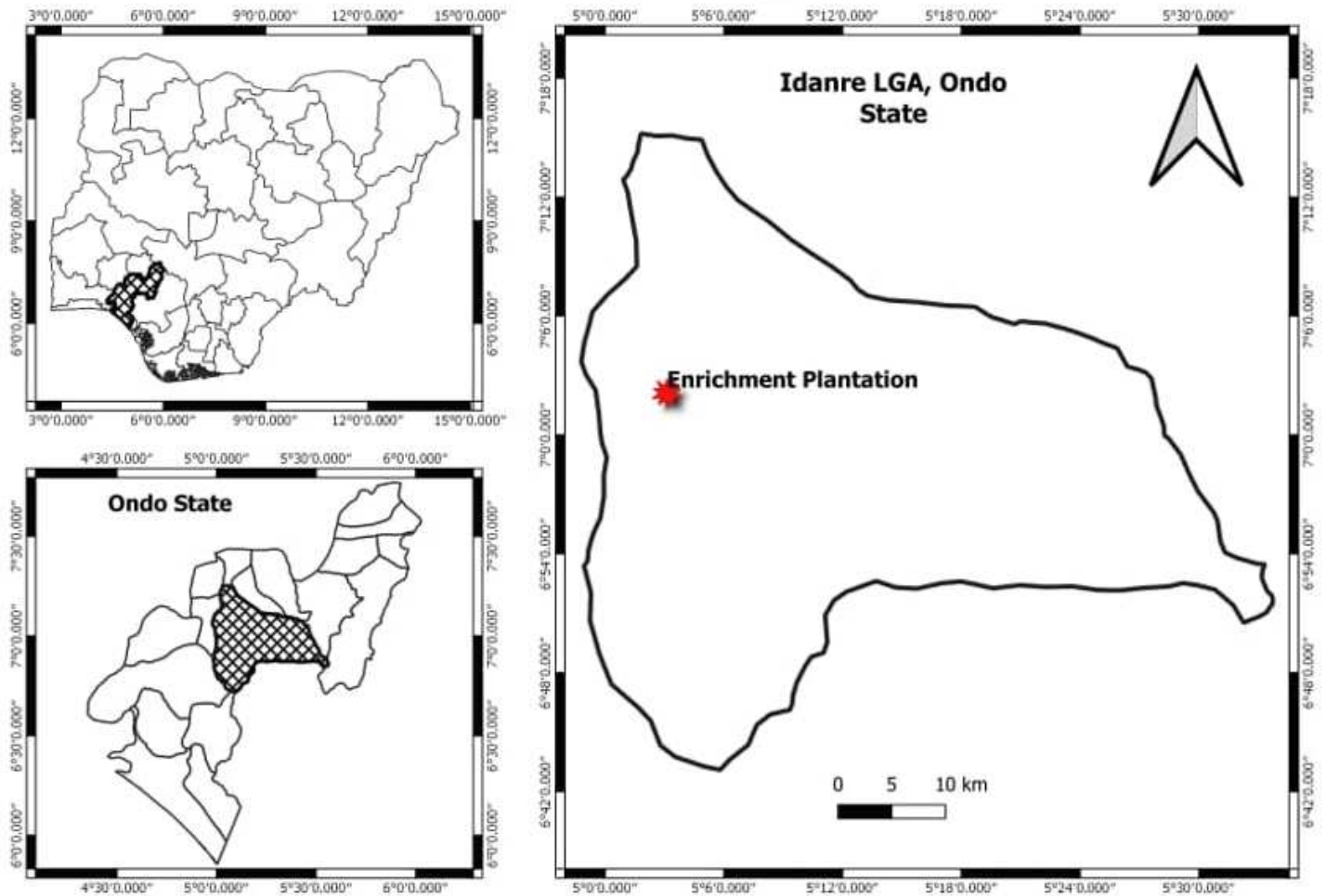


Figure 2

Map of the study area. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

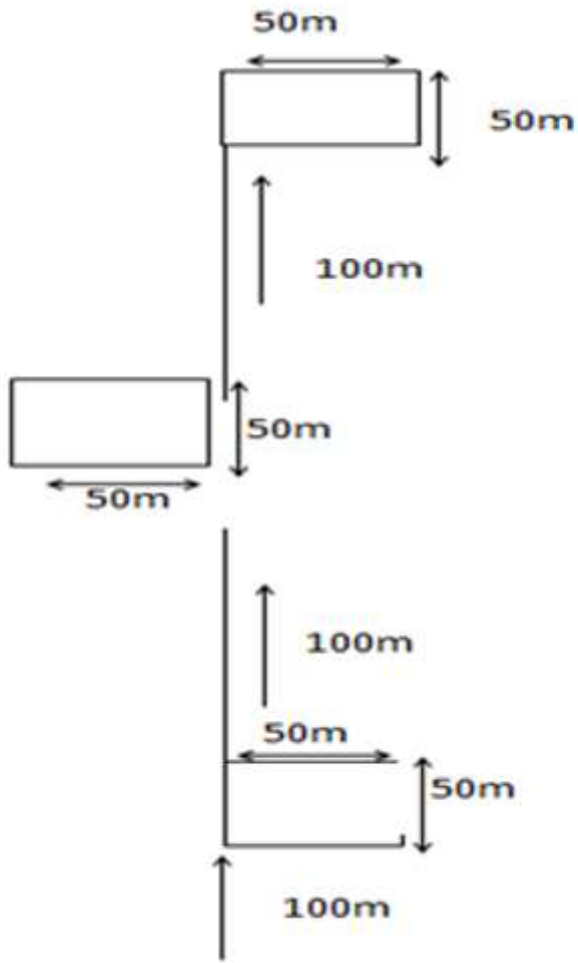


Figure 3

Systematic line transects sampling technique for the study area

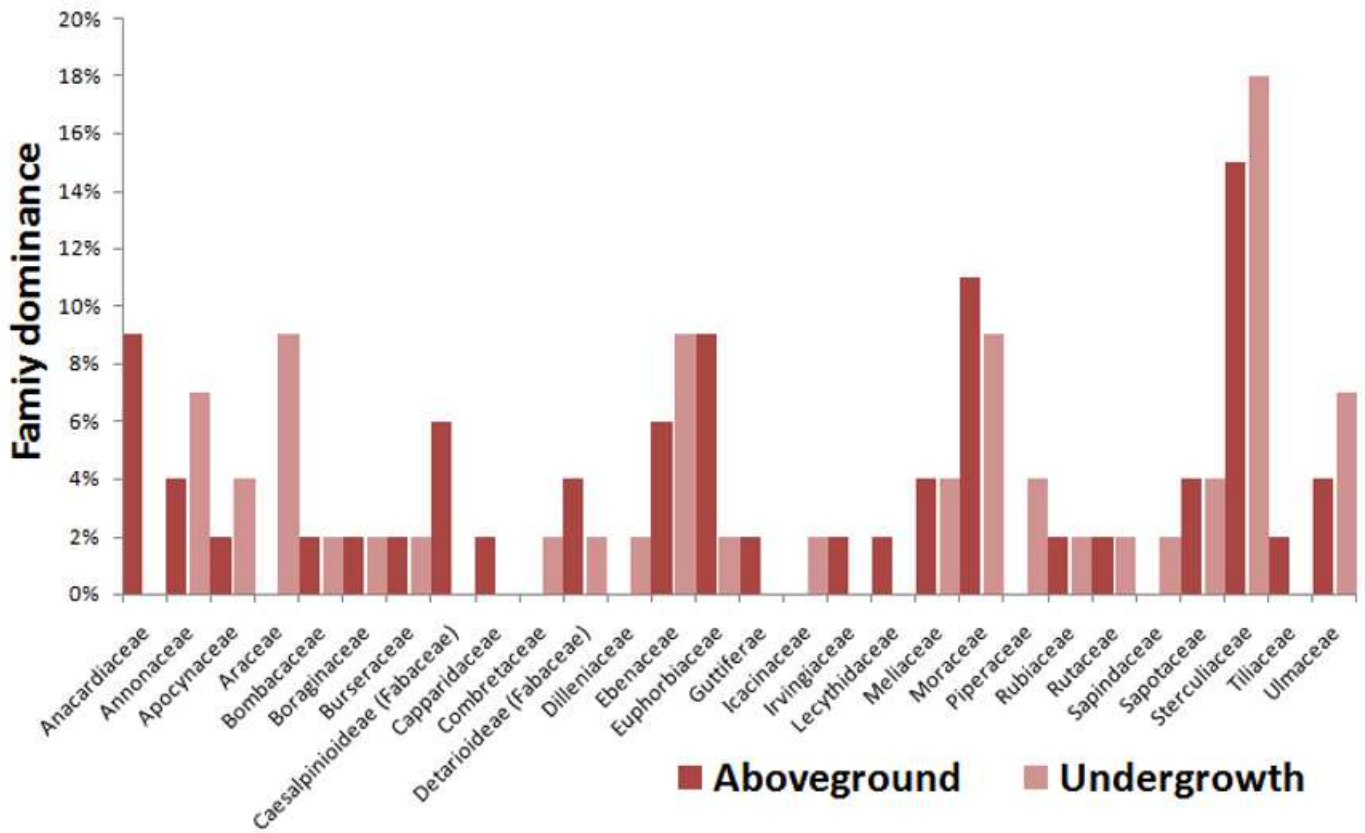


Figure 4

The family composition in the study areas consisting of total number of tree families.

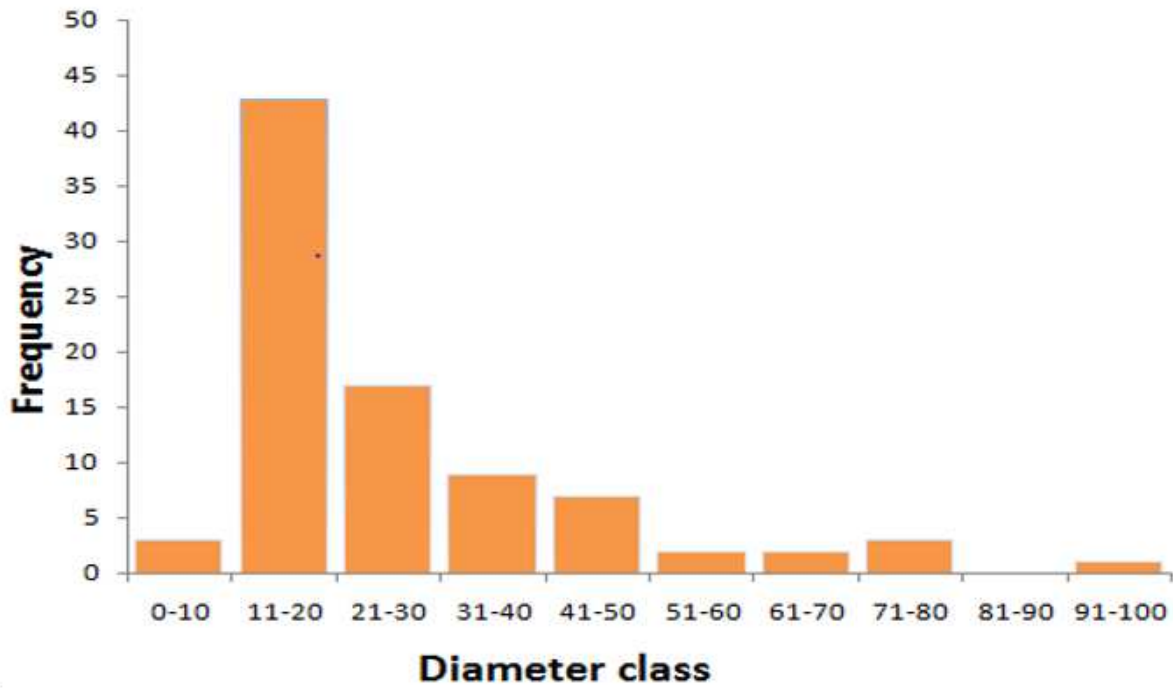


Figure 5

Diameter class showing diameter distribution among the aboveground tree species in the study area

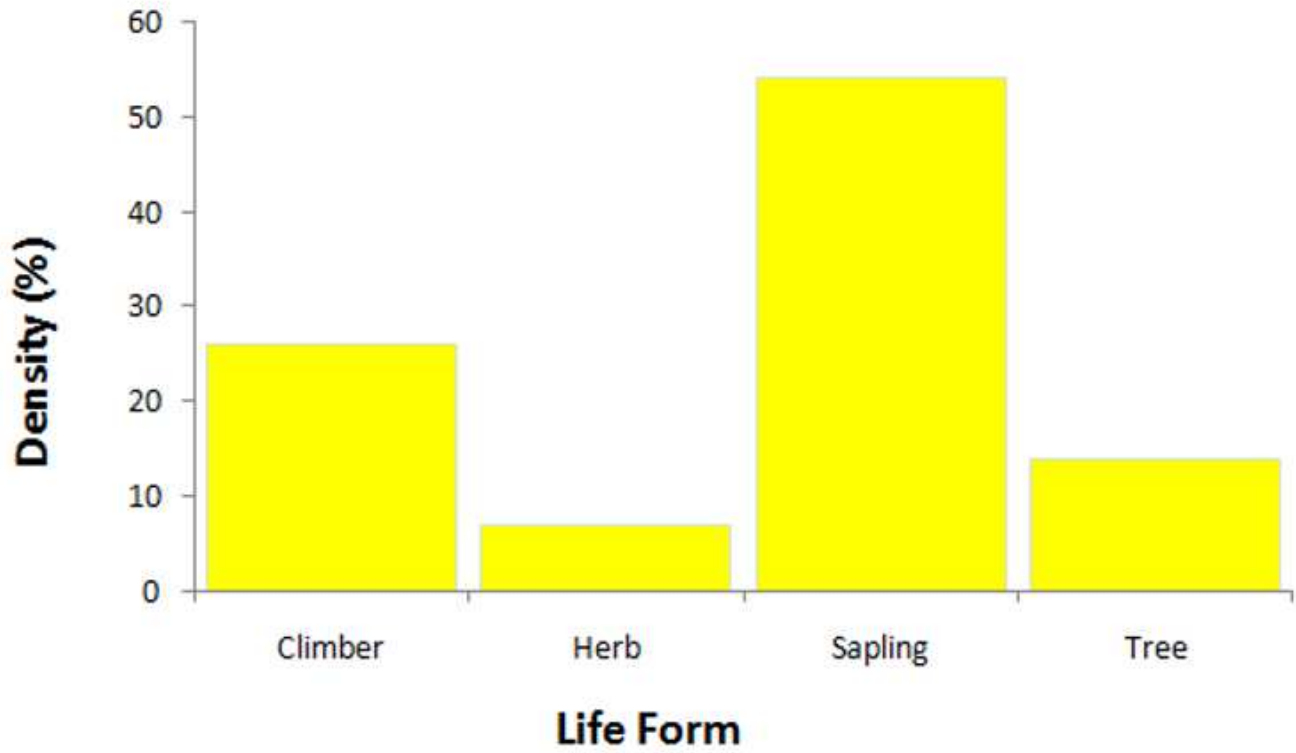


Figure 6

The different life forms of the Enrichment Plantation

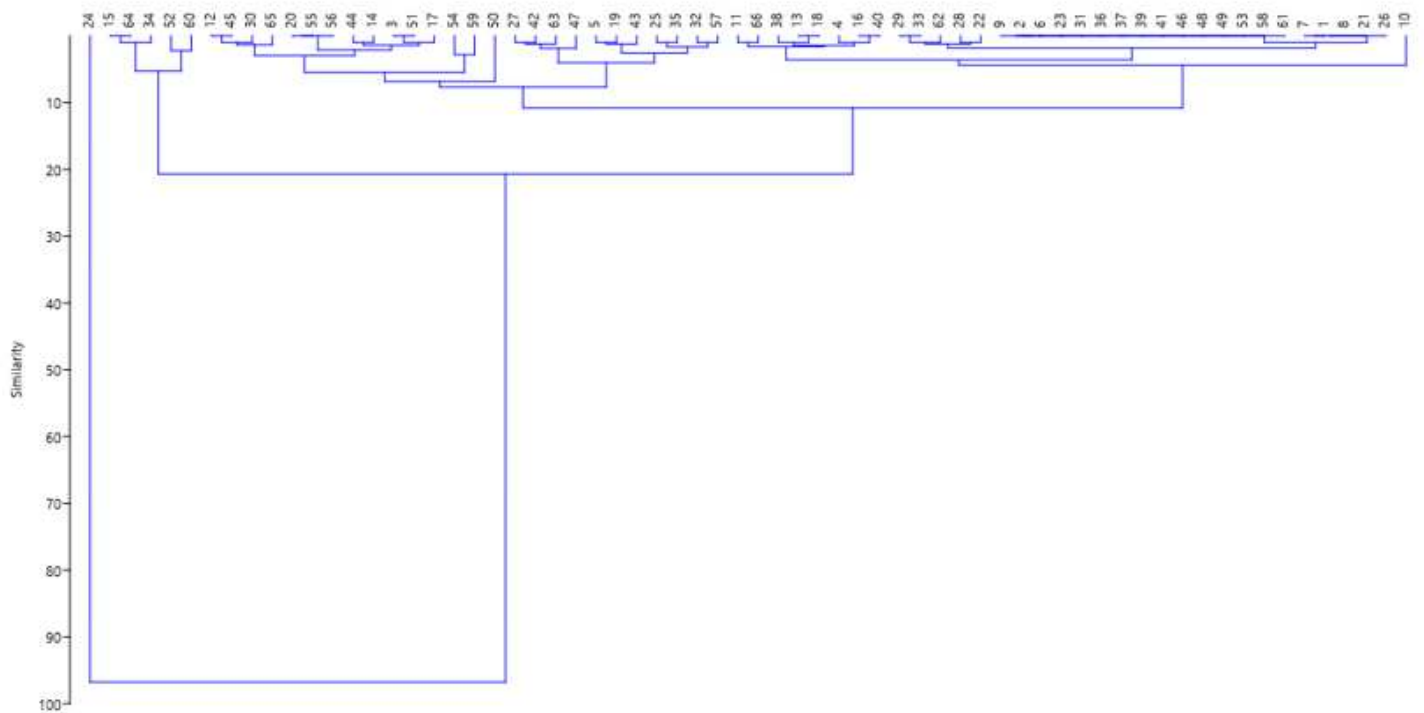


Figure 7

Clustering of plant species populations in the study area. Each number represents the species name shown in Table 1.

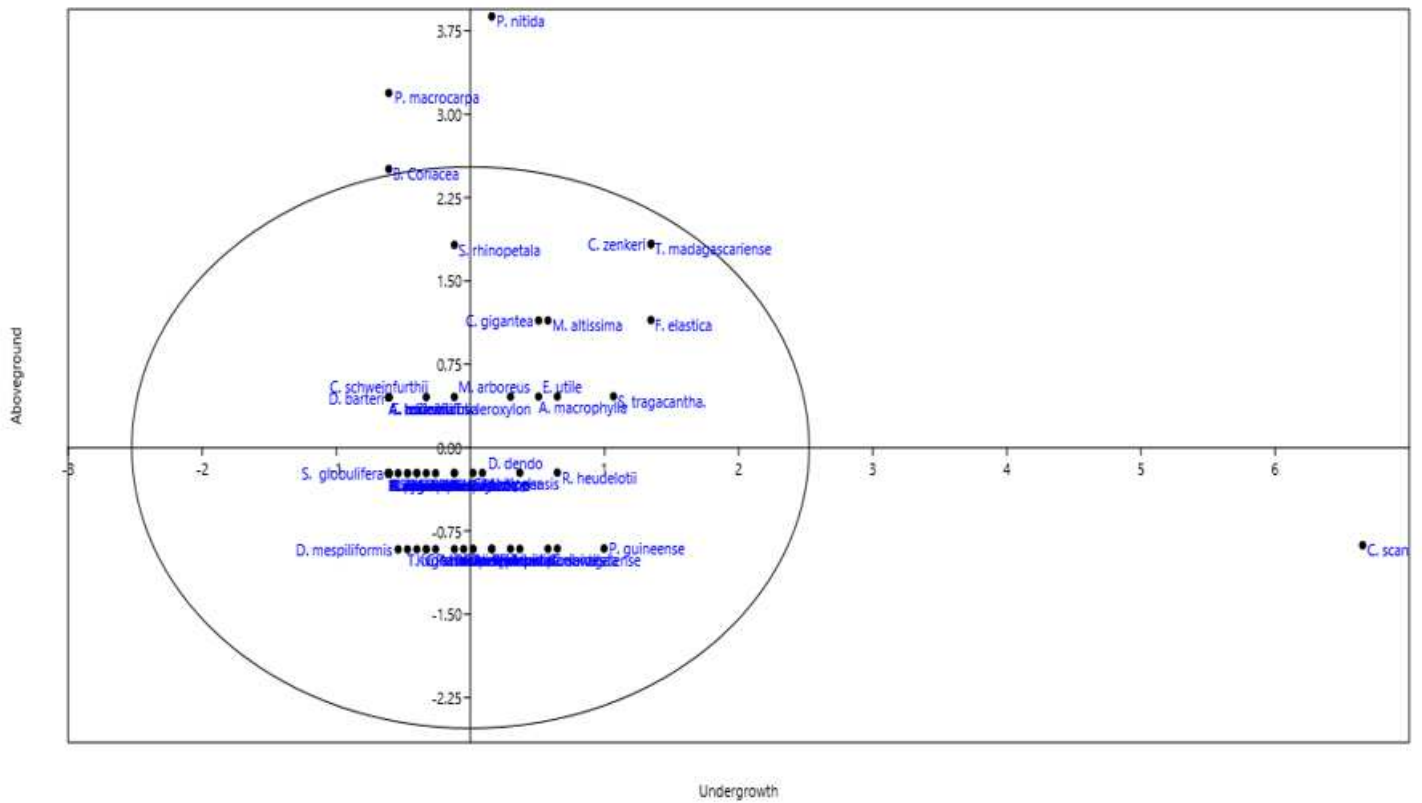


Figure 8

Principal Component Analysis showing variations in the distribution of plant species with regards to the aboveground and undergrowth.