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1 Abstract

2 Liana growth following forest disturbance is threatening the tropical carbon sink by delaying or preventing recovery. Tree growth can be stimulated by liana cutting, however its 3 4 applicability for conservation management remains uncertain, particularly in Africa (the 5 least-studied continent for ecological restoration) and against pervasive barriers such as wildfires. We conducted a small-scale trial to investigate tree sapling regeneration following 6 liana cutting in a lowland African forest prone to low intensity wildfires. We employed a 7 BACI design comprising eighteen 25m² plots of sapling trees in liana-infested areas. After 8 9 five years of liana cutting we saw greater recruitment, stem growth and net biomass. 10 Wildfires caused 51% mortality and probably masked liana cutting influences on species and survival, but may have encouraged stem recruitment through interaction with liana cutting. 11 12 Incorporating our data into a first quantitative review of previous studies, we found that tree 13 growth, recruitment and net growth rates were all consistently higher where lianas were either absent or removed (respectively: 80%, 215%, 633%; n=14, 3, 4). Tree growth impacts were 14 15 approximately equivalent across size-classes and continents. We give recommendations for

improved plot and sample sizes, but conclude that liana cutting is a promising restoration

method for lowland tropical forests, including Africa.

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Introduction

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2 3 Restoration of degraded tropical forests is vital for averting substantial impacts on 4 biodiversity, carbon sinks, and global economy. An estimated 33-60% of tropical forests have been degraded by logging (Asner et al., 2009; FAO, 2010) with 1.4Bha identified for 5 potential restoration (Minnemeyer et al., 2011). Despite this potential, attempts at ecological 6 7 restoration have addressed only a meagre proportion of tropical forests. Tropical forest 8 management has even failed to prevent biodiversity loss within and around protected areas 9 (Laurance et al., 2012). Attempts at improved management through restoration must use site-10 specific biological and social conditions to develop tailored approaches (Stanturf, Palik & 11 Dumroese, 2014). Passive restoration is possible where soils, seeds and plant dispersal are 12 conducive (Barnes & Chapman, 2014), but succession from heavily degraded tropical forest 13 is significantly slower without active management (Chazdon, 2003). 14 Landscape-scale restoration methods for tropical forests are needed that are practical and 15 16 affordable for developing nations. Tree-planting has considerable demands on time, expertise 17 and cost (Chazdon, 2008). Planted trees may even grow slower than naturally regenerating trees (Omeja, Chapman & Obua, 2009) and will affect genetic diversity unless sourced from 18 19 a range of parent trees at the immediate locality. One promising alternative for conservation 20 management widely employed by commercial forestry (Putz, 1991) is to temporarily exclude 21 lianas (woody climbers) by cutting. 22 23 Lianas are a disturbance-favouring guild (Ledo & Schnitzer, 2014), growing rapidly in 24 canopy gaps or edges of tropical forest (Schnitzer & Bongers, 2011). While various non-25 climbing plants compete with forest trees, those that climb are particularly rigorous (Paul &

Yavitt, 2011). Lianas physically restrict trees and compete for light and nutrients, causing

reduced growth, sap flow, fecundity, leaf production and survival (Hegarty, 1991; Álvarez-1 2 Cansino et al., 2015; Toledo-Aceves, 2015) and ultimately biomass accumulation and carbon sequestration (Schnitzer et al., 2014). Consequently, forest succession may be slowed or 3 4 arrested (Schnitzer, Dalling & Carson, 2000; Tymen et al., 2015). Accordingly, the global 5 distribution of lianas is negatively related to carbon stocks (Durán & Gianoli, 2013). 6 Increasing tropical forest degradation has stimulated 1.7-4.6% annual increase in liana 7 abundance, threatening the tropical carbon sink (Phillips et al., 2002; Schnitzer & Bongers, 8 2011; van der Heijden et al., 2013). 9 10 In selectively logged neotropical forests, liana cutting has improved growth, survival and 11 recruitment of tree saplings (Gerwing, 2001; Campanello et al., 2012). Focal timber species 12 have also shown increased growth and survival of saplings following liana cutting (Graul & 13 Putz, 2004) and increased growth of mature trees by 9-64% (Pérez-Salicrup & Barker, 2000; 14 Peña-Claros et al., 2008). The only studies outside of timber concessions or plantation have 15 focussed on Panama, where liana cutting has improved tree growth, recruitment, net carbon 16 uptake and community composition (Schnitzer et al., 2014; Alvarez-Cansino et al., 2015; van 17 der Heijden, Powers & Schnitzer, 2015; Wright et al., 2015), whereas pioneer species may benefit from liana presence (Schnitzer & Carson, 2010). Liana cutting also has positive 18 19 effects on leaf, fruit and seed production, damage caused by treefall, and reduced subsequent 20 liana colonisation of canopy gaps (Parren & Bongers, 2005; Nabe-Nielsen, Kollmann & 21 Peña-Claros, 2009). 22 23 Studies of tree regeneration following liana cutting in the palaeotropics have been limited to 24 focal species in combination with other forestry techniques. Africa is the least-studied 25 continent for ecological restoration (Wortley, Hero & Howes, 2013) despite having the most 26 degraded forest (Minnemeyer et al., 2011) and huge restoration opportunity cost for rural

livelihoods (Chamshama & Vyamana, 2010). The value of liana cutting for restoration has 1 2 been questioned for Africa because of insufficient logging degradation (Bongers, Schnitzer & 3 Traore, 2002). Accordingly, liana removal did not affect tree size or density in Cameroon 4 (Schnitzer, Parren & Bongers, 2004), nor tree species or growth in Uganda (Duncan & 5 Chapman, 2003). Conversely, tree growth elsewhere in Uganda was slow in liana-dominated 6 areas (Babaasa et al., 2004). Tree seedling growth also declined 19% when planted with 7 lianas in Ghana (Toledo-Aceves & Swaine, 2007) and increased five-fold after liana cutting 8 in Côte d'Ivoire (Schnitzer, Kuzee & Bongers, 2005). Liana cutting combined with liberation 9 thinning also increased timber tree growth in Côte d'Ivoire (Parren & Doumbia, 2005), 10 Malaysia (Putz, Lee & Goh, 1984) and Nigeria (Lowe & Walker, 1977). 11 12 While liana cutting may encourage tree growth, it may harm ecosystem functioning. Lianas 13 contribute up to 44% of biodiversity and ~25% of stem density in tropical forests (Schnitzer 14 & Bongers, 2002) and are important for structure (Gentry, 1991) and animals (Emmons & 15 Gentry, 1983; Arroyo- Rodríguez et al., 2015). Cutting large lianas also damages 16 regenerating trees (Campanello et al., 2007). Importantly for ecosystem functioning, liana 17 cutting does not negatively affect subsequent liana regrowth, species composition or tree:liana ratio (Parren & Bongers, 2005; Parren & Doumbia, 2005; Campanello et al., 2012). 18 19 However, few liana cutting studies have presented data for small trees (Gerwing, 2001; 20 Pérez-Salicrup, 2001; Duncan & Chapman, 2003; Schnitzer et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2015), 21 thus overlooking recruitment (and hence succession) and compromising ecosystem function 22 through removal of large lianas. 23 24 Limited evidence suggests that tree growth following liana cutting may be robust to periodic 25 wildfires (Peña-Claros et al., 2008). This is an important consideration because fire risk 26 increases following heavy tropical forest degradation (Chazdon, 2003; Blate et al., 2005) and

may trigger conversion to scrub or savanna (Cochrane et al., 1999). Forest fires are 94% 1 2 unplanned (FAO, 2010) and human-induced increases have reduced global tree basal area 3 (Lehmann et al., 2014), releasing carbon equivalent to 41% of global fossil fuels (Cochrane, 4 2003). Wildfires burned >85% of sub-Saharan Africa between 1996-2009 (Krawchuk & 5 Moritz, 2014) including >37Mha of forest (FAO, 2010). 6 7 While prescribed fire can maintain forest by removing deadwood and thicket, evidence from 8 Bolivia suggests that fire is inappropriate for managing lianas because it stimulates rapid 9 regrowth (Gerwing, 2001), especially for small lianas (Pinard, Putz & Licona, 1999). 10 Furthermore, the biggest impact of wildfires is on sapling trees, causing >50% annual 11 mortality, increasing with fire intensity and frequency (Balch et al., 2011). Therefore 12 prevention of wildfires is often deemed essential for tropical forest restoration (Holl, 2002). 13 However, wildfires have affected most terrestrial ecosystems throughout their history 14 (Marlon et al., 2008) including many tropical forests (Chazdon, 2003). For example, the East 15 African Coastal Forests have survived conversion to woodland for >150,000 years of low 16 frequency fires (Clarke & Karoma, 2000). Hence restoration strategies are required that do 17 not assume complete fire exclusion. However fire-vegetation dynamics remain poorly known, prompting calls for more explicit inclusion in conservation research and planning (Krawchuk 18 19 et al., 2009). 20 21 This study employs liana cutting in a before-after-control-impact design to determine its 22 effectiveness for regenerating sapling trees in an East African forest. The study is small scale 23 and designed as a precursor for later work, but provides a rare palaeotropical trial that is 24 unique in that we test (1) the combined influence of liana cutting on growth, recruitment, 25 mortality, biomass and species for sapling trees, and (2) the robustness of the method by

incorporating covariance with pervasive low frequency wildfires. The results are combined

- with previous studies to make a first quantitative review of liana influence on tropical forest
- tree growth, and to discuss practicalities for liana cutting as a conservation tool.

- 1 Material and Methods
- 2 Study site
- 3 The study was conducted in Magombera Forest, southern Tanzania (Fig. 1; 11km²; elevation
- 4 270m; annual rainfall 1514mm; wet season March-May; sandy-loam pH 4.7; C:N 8.6). The
- 5 habitat was semi-deciduous Zanzibar Inhumbane forest with an understorey comprising small
- 6 herbs, vines, sparse evergreen shrubs and lianas predominant in disturbed areas. Magombera
- 7 Forest has high biodiversity value, including a remarkable proportion of threatened trees and
- 8 a unique plant community comprising both lowland and montane species typical of the
- 9 Eastern Arc Mountains and Coastal Forests of East Africa (Rodgers, Homewood & Hall,
- 10 1980; Marshall, 2008). The area supports several regionally endemic species including the
- 11 Udzungwa red colobus monkey (*Procolobus gordonorum*) and Magombera chameleon
- 12 (Kinyongia magomberae). Magombera Forest had no legal protection at the time of study, but
- with interim management by a conservation collaboration, which ensured limited disturbance
- to research sites.

- 16 Magombera Forest was chosen for its restoration potential following timber-felling in the
- 17 1970s/80s, and widespread pole-sized tree removal for local domestic use and sale. The area
- 18 comprised ~20% "secondary forest" (≥90% canopy loss with mostly stunted/damaged trees
- and isolated tall trees) and ~80% "degraded primary forest" (<90% canopy loss with a mostly
- 20 heavily degraded understorey; Fig. 1). Most primary and secondary forest comprised a high
- 21 density of understorey lianas, particularly *Uncaria africana* G.Don, forming thickets fastened
- by hooked spines (Fig. 2). Across the region, many of these thickets had persisted for ≥ 30
- years, similar to liana forest elsewhere in East Africa (Chapman & Chapman, 1997).
- Tanzanian forest habitats were mostly not actively managed at the time of study. However in
- 25 Magombera Forest, managers and villagers maintained fire-breaks and extinguished some
- wildfires, reducing the extent of burning by \sim 50%. Wildfires were typical of lowland forests

in the region, comprising creeping low intensity ground fires spreading from neighbouring 1 2 agriculture and woodland management. 3 **Plots** 4 In July 2007 (year 1) we established eighteen 5m×5m plots in areas with lianas touching or 5 6 obstructing all "sapling" tree stems 1-4.9cm diameter at breast height (130cm; dbh). Plots 7 were placed at 100m intervals along a transect to ease relocation, randomly offsetting 100m 8 north or south to avoid disturbance. We did not randomise across the forest as dense thickets 9 would have precluded relocation of plots and required extensive cutting for access. Instead 10 the transect location was selected for its representation of the Magombera Forest tree species 11 community (Marshall, 2008). One randomised plot location had few lianas and hence was 12 repositioned. The plot size and number were chosen to allow rapid survey while giving 13 sufficient sample size to assess growth following a previous East African study (Duncan & 14 Chapman, 2003). Among the 18 plots we managed ten alternate plots by cutting lianas. We 15 used secateurs to cut liana stems or branches (mostly <1cm dbh) that either touched or 16 obstructed "seedling" (<1cm dbh) or sapling trees, leaving cut vegetation in situ. Cuts were 17 made at ground level and around 1.5m. Annually in February and July, any new liana growth was cut again. The sample size was uneven (ten managed by liana cutting; eight unmanaged) 18 19 because two intended plot locations had few lianas anywhere nearby.

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In year 1 we measured, marked and identified all sapling tree stems, and painted the point of measurement (re-labelling annually if deteriorated). To ease relocation in subsequent years, we dug L-shaped ditches at plot corners (15cm deep × 30cm long) and marked nearby trees with paint and tags. In July 2012 (year 5) we re-measured all surviving year 1 stems, plus any new "recruited" stems. Height was measured using a tape measure (stems 1.3-2.5m), wooden pole (2.5-7m), or Bushnell Yardage Pro rangefinder (≥7m). We measured dbh using a

1	girthing tape, adjusting the point of measurement for deformed trees (Kuebler, 2003).				
2	Specimens were collected for identification at the Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew. To				
3	determine potential for future restoration of the mature tree community, we also made basic				
4	quantitative comparison (% species overlap) of the sapling species composition to "mature"				
5	stems ≥10cm dbh along the same transect (0.875ha; 5m×1,750m), and to a species inventory				
6	of mature stems \geq 10cm dbh for the whole forest (Marshall, 2008 and unpublished data).				
7					
8	Analysis				
9	Above-ground biomass was calculated using Equation 1 (Chave et al., 2005) as used				
10	previously for sapling stems (Holl & Zahawi, 2014; Schnitzer et al., 2014). We preferred this				
11	equation over alternatives excluding height because stature varies with climate (Marshall et				
12	al., 2012). We also preferred this method over less-tested alternatives following previous				
13	success in Africa (Vieilledent et al., 2012) and following trials with our own data that				
14	increased biomass estimates by 22-55% (Ngomanda et al., 2014; Mugasha et al., 2016).				
15	Wood specific gravity (WSG) was determined using mean catalogued values for each species				
16	(Zanne et al., 2009), or genus, family or Magombera Forest average for species lacking WSG				
17	data. In addition to biomass, we also present tree growth rate as dbh.stem ⁻¹ .yr ⁻¹ for				
18	consistency with previous studies.				
19					
20	Above-ground biomass (kg) = $0.0509 \times \rho D^2 H$				
21	Equation 1: Biomass calculation for moist forest trees using WSG (ρ; g.cm ⁻³), dbh (D; cm)				
22	and height (H; m) (Chave et al., 2005).				
23					
24	We performed statistical analyses using R 3.0.2 (http://cran.r-project.org). To determine the				
25	impact of liana cutting, we used one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) models to compare				
26	five regeneration indicators between managed and unmanaged plots: (a) new sapling stem				

1	biomass (recruitment), (b) proportional biomass increase of year 1 stems (growth), (c)
2	proportion of year 1 biomass lost through deaths (mortality), (d) proportional change in total
3	biomass (net biomass change; recruitment plus growth minus mortality) and (e) proportional
4	species richness change (community change). We did not manage fire, but included wildfire
5	frequency per plot in ANOVA models, including its statistical interaction with liana cutting
6	(ANCOVA). To ensure parsimony, wildfire frequency (and in one instance liana cutting) was
7	dropped from models where it did not improve the effect size according to likelihood ratio
8	tests (Crawley, 2005). For all modelling we employed transformations to remove skew,
9	including twice natural log for recruitment and growth, and square root for proportional net
10	biomass change (respectively adding one or two to address negative values). Residual
11	diagnostics were used to verify normality.
12	
13	For regeneration indicators dependent on year 1 biomass (all except recruitment), we
14	preferred proportional over absolute measures of change to reduce bias from variation in year
15	1 stem size and density. For these models using proportions, we excluded either one or two
16	plots with zero values in year 1 (i.e. infinite proportional change). To address this removal of
17	plots we also calculated means and 95% bootstrapped confidence intervals (10,000 iterations;
18	95CI) for absolute measurements, for comparison to proportional changes.
19	
20	To avoid Type I errors we used False Discovery Rate correction of alpha values (α_{FDR} ;
21	Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). To determine sampling adequacy for significant indicators we
22	used power analysis to calculate the proportion of discernible change, under our sampling
23	level and increased sampling to fifteen or twenty plots per treatment (80% power; Crawley,
24	2005).
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- 1 Results
- 2 Biomass
- 3 Net biomass increase among stems 1-4.9cm dbh was higher in plots managed by liana cutting
- 4 than unmanaged plots (total 129.9 versus 9.6kg respectively; Fig. 3; Table 1). The increase in
- 5 biomass comprising recruitment of new stems was higher in managed plots (total 31.6kg;
- 6 0.42stems.m⁻², 95CI 0.16-0.75) than unmanaged plots (total 5.7kg; 0.10stems.m⁻², 0.03-0.18)
- 7 (Table 1). In year 1 we measured 107 stems, with no significant difference between managed
- and unmanaged plots prior to management (W=59; p=0.098; managed: 0.4-5.6stems.10m⁻²;
- 9 unmanaged: 0.0-3.2stems.10m⁻²). Stem numbers increased with recruitment to 171 in year 5,
- with significantly more stems in managed plots (W=65.5; p=0.026; managed: 0.8-
- 17.2stems.10m⁻²; unmanaged 0.0-4.0stems.10m⁻²).

13 The net biomass increase also comprised growth of year 1 stems, again higher in managed

- plots (total 116.7kg; 3.4kg.stem⁻¹, 95CI 1.8-5.5; 17.7mm dbh.stem⁻¹, 95CI 12.3-23.4) than
- unmanaged plots (total 21.3kg; 1.6kg.stem⁻¹, 0.1-4.4; 7.9mm dbh.stem⁻¹, 0.5-18.4) (Table 1).
- Biomass loss from mortality was no different between managed plots (total 18.5kg;
- $0.17 stems.m^{-2},\,95 CI\,\,0.10\text{-}0.24)\,\,and\,\,unmanaged\,\,plots\,\,(total\,\,17.4 kg;\,\,0.12 stems.m^{-2},\,0.07\text{-}0.17)$
- 18 (Table 1).

12

20 At 80% power our sample size was sufficient for detecting ≥152% change in recruitment,

- \geq 267% proportion growth, and \geq 35% proportion net biomass. Increasing the sample size 15-
- 22 20 plots per treatment would have increased the expected detection to \geq 102-87%, \geq 180-152%
- and \geq 24-20% respectively.

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Species 1 2 Four species were recruited to plots that were absent in year 1, but seven species were lost, 3 resulting in a net loss (2007: 29 species; 2012: 26 species). The proportional loss of species 4 was not significantly different between managed and unmanaged plots (Table 1). Community composition was similar between treatments, with 76% of stems from species found in both 5 6 managed and unmanaged plots. However, managed and unmanaged plots shared only five of 7 their top ten species in year 1 (four in year 5; Table S1). This difference did not account for 8 the proportional net biomass increase in managed plots, which persisted using only stems from species found in both treatments (F=6.79; r²=0.31; p=0.020). Precision for assessing 9 10 relative species abundance within and between plots was limited, as seen from frequent zero 11 values and complete overlap in 95CIs (Table S1). 12 13 Out of 86 tree species known to reach 10cm dbh across the forest, we identified 38 sapling 14 species in restoration plots, compared to 29 mature tree species along the transect. Only 48% 15 of mature tree species were found among saplings. The top ten sapling species included only 16 one of the top ten mature trees and only three of the top ten from the whole forest (Table S1; 17 two and three year 5 species respectively). Nearly all stems (>99%) were species typical of the Eastern Arc Mountains and Coastal Forests (EAMCF) of eastern Africa, with drier 18 19 woodland species comprising <1% of stems. Mature trees were dominated by canopy species, 20 whereas restoration plots were dominated by understorey/midstrata species (Table S1). 21 22 Wildfire Pervasive wildfire frequency was 1.61plot⁻¹ (range 1.0-3.0plot⁻¹; 0.32yr⁻¹, 0.20-0.60) and 23 equivalent between managed (1.60plot⁻¹, 95CI 1.00-2.10) and unmanaged plots (1.63plot⁻¹, 24 0.63-2.50). Wildfires killed ~55 year 1 stems (91.7% of deaths), but wildfire frequency did 25 not directly influence growth, recruitment, mortality or net biomass change ($r^2 \le 0.08$; $p \ge 0.27$) 26

- and hence was not confidently retained in models (Table 1). Interaction was seen between
- 2 wildfire frequency and liana cutting management for recruitment (greater cutting influence at
- 3 high wildfire frequency; Fig. 4a) but with no significant improvement on liana cutting alone
- 4 (Table 1). Increasing wildfire frequency explained 29% of variation in proportional species
- loss, enhancing a univariate liana cutting model but not significant at the 95% level (Table 1;
- 6 Fig. 4b). Plots with zero to one wildfire showed increased proportional community change
- 7 (0.23, 95CI -0.27-0.73), while those with two to three wildfires decreased (-0.3, 95CI -0.52 to
- 8 -0.13).

1 Discussion

2

- 3 The results suggest that liana cutting is a promising restoration strategy, expanding its
- 4 potential beyond the geographic bias of previous studies. We here compare our tree
- 5 regeneration rates to previous liana cutting studies, and to studies comparing liana
- 6 presence/absence through natural growth or planting.

7

- 8 Biomass
- 9 Our observed growth rate increase for liana cutting compared to unmanaged plots (dbh:
- 10 119%; biomass: 109%) is greater than most previous studies comparing tree dbh,
- circumference or height with/without lianas (mean 66%, 95CI 39-99, n=12 [including this
- study: 69%, 43-100, n=20]), but more typical of studies comparing biomass or basal area
- 13 (80%, 35-150, n=13 [83%, 39-147, n=14]) (Table 2). Previous studies have been biased
- towards low elevation (median 200m; mean 215m), with the only high elevation study
- showing no significant influence of liana and shrub removal on tree growth (Duncan &
- 16 Chapman, 2003). Our 350% increase in recruitment with liana cutting is higher than the only
- 17 two comparable studies of stems ≤5cm dbh, both in Panama, which increased by 46% (stems
- 18 ≥1.3m tall; Schnitzer & Carson, 2010) and 250% (stems <1cm dbh; Graul & Putz, 2004),
- 19 giving a mean of 215% across studies. Two further studies showed (a) comparable stem size
- and density between liana cut and control plots in Cameroon (Schnitzer et al., 2004) and (b)
- 21 increased sapling density with liana cutting and liberation thinning after 19 years (but not 42
- 22 years) in Malaysia (Addo-Fordjour, Rahmad & Asyraf, 2013), but did not present pre-
- treatment measurements for calculation of % increases.

- 25 The impact of liana absence on tree stem growth in Africa (dbh/circ/h: +28%, -18-77, n=5;
- 26 ba/bio: +122%, 21-288, n=5), Asia (dbh/circ/h: no data; ba/bio: +41%, 9-73, n=3) and the

palaeotropics combined (dbh/circ/h: +28%, -18-77, n=5; ba/bio: +92%, 26-197, n=8) did not 1 2 differ from the more extensive neotropical studies (dbh/circ/h: +83%, 54-119, n=15; ba/bio: +71%, 37-112, n=6). This provides a first quantitative indication that lianas (and presumably 3 liana removal) have approximately equivalent pantropical impact on biomass. 4 5 Our lack of liana cutting influence on mortality is inconsistent with neotropical studies 6 7 showing greater mortality with lianas present (Ingwell et al., 2010; Schnitzer & Carson, 2010; 8 van der Heijden et al., 2015). However, wildfires were not present in these studies, and may 9 have masked a positive impact of liana cutting on survival. Accordingly, our 56-64% stem 10 mortality (57-68% biomass loss) is within the range of other tropical forests impacted by 11 wildfires (Woods, 1989: >80%, Malaysia; Pinard et al., 1999: 74%, Bolivia; Kinnaird & 12 O'Brien, 2008: 25-70%, Sumatra). However, without controlling for fire the expected 13 positive influence of liana cutting on survival remains uncertain. Previous African studies of 14 tree mortality with/without lianas have found only ambiguous (Schnitzer et al., 2005; Toledo-15 Aceves & Swaine, 2007) or zero relationships (Toledo-Aceves & Swaine, 2008). Liana 16 cutting also did not influence seedling survival for two tree species in Bolivia (Pérez-17 Salicrup, 2001). 18 19 Bringing together growth, recruitment and mortality, our observed 765% increase in relative net biomass gain from 0.32kg.kg⁻¹ in managed plots to 2.77kg.kg⁻¹ in unmanaged plots is of 20 21 similar magnitude to two previous estimates from Panama of 370% (stems >1.3m height; unmanaged 0.23kg.kg⁻¹; managed 1.08kg.kg⁻¹; Schnitzer et al., 2014) and 646% (stems 22 ≥10cm dbh; unmanaged 0.017kg.kg⁻¹; managed 0.11kg.kg⁻¹; van der Heijden et al., 2015). A 23 24 similar magnitude of increase (750%) was seen for basal area in Brazil (stems >5cm dbh; unmanaged 64cm².m⁻²; managed 544cm².m⁻²; Gerwing, 2001). The mean 633% increase 25

across these studies suggests increasing pantropical liana growth will have increasing impact

1	on biomass loss beyond existing estimates of 9-76% (Schnitzer et al., 2014; van der Heijden
2	et al., 2015). Liana influence can vary with initial tree biomass (Schnitzer et al., 2014), hence
3	we have made these comparisons using biomass (or basal area) increase per pre-treatment
4	stem size, i.e. kg.kg ⁻¹ and cm ² .m ⁻² , to control for initial differences in and plot and stem size
5	between studies.
6	
7	The reason for our generally high regeneration is uncertain. Variation within previous studies
8	has been ascribed to shade and liana density (Ingwell et al., 2010; Schnitzer & Carson, 2010).
9	Variation across studies may also have arisen from inconsistencies in tree size, measurement
10	units and timespan. Across studies, the growth increase without lianas was unrelated to tree
11	size and most variable for small stems (<5cm dbh: 135% [95CI: 47-250], n=7; >5cm dbh:
12	75% [51-104], n=20; unspecified size: 75% [36-124], n=5). Regarding units, dbh narrowly
13	predominates over biomass in the literature, presumably because of its relevance to forestry
14	and uncertainty regarding biomass calculation. Indeed, region-specific biomass estimation
15	methods are lacking across the tropics, particularly for saplings. Regarding timespan, the
16	impact of liana cutting in isolation is unknown beyond 10 years and 71% of all restoration
17	studies have spanned ≤15 years (Wortley et al., 2013).
18	
19	Importantly, wildfires in Magombera Forest have not obscured the positive influence of liana
20	cutting on biomass. Furthermore, the observed positive interaction between liana cutting and
21	wildfire frequency provides weak evidence that liana cutting is more effective for
22	encouraging recruitment in the presence of fire. However, our observed lack of biomass gain
23	in the absence of liana cutting does not suggest a positive "prescribed burn" influence.
24	
25	Species

1	Our difference in species between sapling and mature stems suggests typical negative density					
2	dependent growth (Wright, 2002). However, our high sapling species richness shows good					
3	restoration potential. Our data are inconclusive regarding liana cutting impacts on community					
4	restoration, perhaps a result of limited scale. In Panama, tree species richness increased 65%					
5	following liana cutting (Schnitzer & Carson, 2010) and tree-liana competition was similar					
6	between species (Álvarez-Cansino et al., 2015). Conversely, liana cutting in Brazil caused					
7	both increases and decreases across species (Gerwing, 2001). Community change following					
8	liana cutting remains unverified for Africa, however pioneer trees recruited faster than mid-					
9	successional species following liana/shrub removal in Uganda (Duncan & Chapman, 2003).					
10	Moreover, tropical forest recovery often requires establishment of single species (Chazdon,					
11	2003) or several "framework species" (Goosem & Tucker, 1995) before soil fertility, seed					
12	dispersal and shade are sufficient to stimulate succession. Hence longer-term monitoring is					
13	required.					
14						
15	Similar to mortality, our lack of liana cutting influence on species composition may have					
16	been confounded by wildfires, which can favour pioneers (Cochrane & Schulze, 1999) or					
17	drought-resistant species with thick bark (Uhl & Kauffman, 1990). However our observed					
18	prevalence of forest species gives no evidence for wildfire-driven conversion to woodland.					
19	Yet while our regression was weak, wildfires caused ≥51% stem mortality and net species					
20	loss where they exceeded one per five years. As saplings grow their resilience to fire					
21						
	improves, with increasing evidence for a bark resistance threshold (Hoffman et al., 2012).					
22	improves, with increasing evidence for a bark resistance threshold (Hoffman et al., 2012).					
22 23	improves, with increasing evidence for a bark resistance threshold (Hoffman et al., 2012). Practicalities					
23	Practicalities					

twelve months (one person-day.ha⁻¹). This would cost ~US\$6,000yr⁻¹ for labour and 1 equipment (US\$5.45ha⁻¹), compared to US\$1-4ha⁻¹ for West Africa (Bongers et al., 2002) 2 and mean \$11ha⁻¹ for Bolivia and Brazil (range \$1-16ha⁻¹; Vidal et al., 1997; Pérez-Salicrup 3 et al., 2001; Dauber, Fredericksen & Peña, 2005). The equivalent cost for alternative tree-4 planting in neighbouring Uganda was more than 44 times more expensive (US\$1,200ha⁻¹.5vr⁻¹ 5 ¹; Omeja et al., 2009). 6 7 8 Future monitoring of saplings would benefit from increased sampling. Plots used previously 9 for stems <5cm dbh have varied in size and number per treatment (Duncan & Chapman, 2003: 25m², n=19; Schnitzer et al., 2005: 108m², n=10; Gerwing, 2001: 400m², n=6). Our 10 11 own sampling enabled statistically verifiable conclusions for biomass. However, larger plots 12 would reduce zero values and improve precision. Increased samples would further improve precision, with our power analysis suggesting twenty plots per treatment would have nearly 13 14 doubled our ability to detect biomass change. While our plots were too small to estimate an 15 optimal size for measuring biodiversity, previous work suggests 300-400 stems per plot 16 (Gimaret-Carpentier et al., 1998). At our observed sapling density, this would need plots of \sim 790-1,053m², similar to stems 1-9.9cm dbh in Amazonia (0.1ha; Magnusson et al., 2005). 17 18 19 Thirdly, lianas (and cutting) may not influence regeneration where light or liana abundance is 20 low, e.g. shaded forest or small canopy gaps (Toledo-Aceves & Swaine, 2008; van der 21 Heijden & Phillips, 2009; Ingwell et al., 2010). Liana removal may even be damaging to 22 healthy forests, e.g. maintaining small canopy gaps can preserve biodiversity by supporting 23 pioneers and lianas (Schnitzer & Carson, 2000). Hence liana cutting is best employed on a 24 tree-by-tree basis (Schnitzer & Bongers, 2002) with focus on abundant species (Sfair et al., 25 2011) in large canopy gaps/thickets (Schnitzer & Carson, 2010) and heavily degraded 26 understorey (this study). Cutting must also be temporary to allow liana recovery (Campanello

1	et al., 2012). Trees were bent by lianas in Magombera up to ~2cm dbh, and we estimate that
2	six to seven years of cutting would allow 50% of recruited stems to reach this size.
3	
4	Accurate assessment of liana cutting is also hindered because, for geographic completeness
5	our review of previous work includes liana presence/absence through natural growth or
6	planting. These studies may suffer from species bias in host tree preferences (Putz et al.,
7	1984; Campanello et al., 2007) or choice of planted seedlings. Indeed, the increase in growth
8	without lianas was higher among cutting studies (mean 90%; n=19) than the rest (57%;
9	n=10), but not significant (95CI 53-139 and 23-108 respectively). A previous comparison of
10	growth between liberated and naturally liana-free trees found ambiguous results for timber
11	species in Bolivia (Villegas et al., 2009). Therefore more liana cutting studies are needed
12	across stem sizes in natural forest, especially regarding recruitment and biodiversity.
13	
14	Finally, restoration must form part of a holistic strategy. Effective restoration benefits from
15	legal and stakeholder support, economic value, improvement in soil, hydrology and water
16	quality, and understanding the interactions between ecosystems and socio-political systems
17	(ITTO, 2002; SER, 2004). Arguably no tropical forest restoration study has addressed
18	situations where all of these factors have been true. This includes our study, where there was
19	limited legal protection, little direct income from the forest, and no soil or hydrology data.
20	Moreover, the persistence of wildfires emphasises that burning practices in adjacent areas
21	were not employed with landscape management in mind. Nevertheless, liana cutting has here
22	proved effective for regenerating biomass even without full wildfire control.
23	
24	

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Models

- 1 Tables
- 2 Table 1 Comparison of mean (and 95CI) regeneration indicators following management of
- 3 25m² plots using liana cutting versus unmanaged plots (2007-2012). Significant models of
- 4 liana cutting influence on regeneration per plot are summarised with significant results in
- 5 bold (α_{FDR}=0.03) indicating direction of influence (+/–). Pervasive wildfire frequency and
- 6 interaction covariates are also shown where retained following model reduction (α_{FDR} =0.01),
- 7 including the reduction in effect size when each variable was removed (δr^2). Models without

Managed

8 covariates (i.e. liana cutting alone) did not explain reduced variance to those including

Unmanaged

9 wildfire and interaction terms ($F \le 2.69$; $p \ge 0.103$).

Regeneration measure

		(lianas cut)	[and covariates]
Recruitment: Biomass	28	126	** (a) F=6.2, r ² =0.28, p=0.024
recruited (g.m ⁻²)* ¹	(6-59)	(53-211)	(b) F=4.3, r ² =0.37, p=0.024
			[liana cutting ⁽⁺⁾ : $\delta r^2 = 0.37$, p=0.72;
			wildfires ⁽⁺⁾ : $\delta r^2 = 0.09$, p=0.061;
			interaction ⁽⁺⁾ : $\delta r^2 = 0.18$, p=0.038]
Growth: Proportional	0.46	1.98	F=6.3, r ² =0.28, p=0.023
(and g.m ⁻²) biomass	(-0.05-1.33)	(0.86-3.15)	
growth of liberated year	142	467	
1 saplings*1	(-5-404)	(168-793)	
Mortality: Proportion (and	0.68	0.57	F=0.39, r ² =0.03, p=0.541
$g.m^{-2}$) of year 1 biomass	(0.43-0.91)	(0.36-0.77)	
lost through deaths	116	74	
	(49-187)	(33-119)	
Net biomass increase:	-0.10	3.43	F=13.1, r ² =0.46, p=0.0026

Proportion (and g.m ⁻²)	(-0.79-0.83)	(1.92-4.95)	
change in total biomass	48	520	
(recruitment + growth -	(-118-269)	(205-859)	
death)* ²			
Community change:	-0.33	-0.06	*** F=3.1, r ² =0.22, p=0.080
Proportional (and	(-0.67-0.17)	(-0.32-0.24)	[liana cutting ⁽⁻⁾ : δr^2 =-0.08, p=0.502;
absolute) change in	0.00	-0.70	wildfires ⁽⁻⁾ : $\delta r^2 = 0.17$, p=0.038]
species richness per plot	(-0.75-0.88)	(-1.70-0.20)	

^{*}Transformed for modelling: ¹twice ln; ²square root. **Models (a) and (b) explained

- 2 equivalent variance (F=2.69; p=0.103) and hence (a) preferred for parsimony. However
- 3 model (b) also presented to highlight interaction. ***Model using wildfire frequency alone
- 4 (Fig. 4b) preferred for parsimony (equivalent variance explained: F=0.48; p=0.503).

- 1 Table 2 Mean tree stem growth with and without competition from lianas, from all known
- 2 studies in tropical forests. Unless stated, data show annual increments per stem and liana
- 3 absence was due to cutting. Alternative measurements of the same stems using different units
- 4 are shown in parentheses. Ba=basal area, cm²; bio=biomass, kg; circ=rate of circumference
- 5 increase, mm/mm; dbh, dbh₁₅=diameter at 1.3m or 1.5m, mm; dbh_{gr}=species-independent ten
- 6 year growth residual derived from dbh, mm; h=height in m; $RGR_{c,d,h,b}$ =relative growth rate
- 7 (circumference at breast height, diameter at base, height, or biomass); %=percent increase in
- 8 growth rate with lianas absent; Size=size of stems in the study (dbh, cm, unless stated);
- 9 Years=duration of the study.

Study	Country	Lianas	No lianas	%	Size	Years
	(elevation)					
This study	Tanzania	1.6 dbh	3.5 dbh	119	1-4.9	5
	(270m)	(0.33 bio)	(0.69 bio)	(109)		
Lowe & Walker	Nigeria	19.1 ba	22.9 ba	20	10.5-36.2	6
$(1977)^{b,d,e}$	(143m)					
Putz (1984) al,d,e	Panama	635 ba	893 ba	41	30-50	10
	(85m^k)					
Putz et al. (1984)	Malaysia	15.4 ba	26.6 ba	73	≥10	5
site 1 b,e	(124m^k)					
Putz et al. (1984)	Malaysia	23.9 ba*	26.0 ba*	9	≥10	4
site 2 b,e	(47m^k)					
Putz et al. (1984)	Malaysia	28.2 ba	40.1 ba	42	≥10	4
site 3 b,e	(200m^k)					
Stanley (1997) <i>al.f</i>	Brazil	2.1 dbh*	2.4 dbh*	14	≥2.0 h	9
	(30m^k)	(0.17 h)	(0.23 h)	(35)		

Pérez-Salicrup &	Bolivia	0.2 circ	0.4 circ	100	10-20	1
Barker (2000) ^e	(200m)					
Gerwing (2001)	Brazil	1.3 dbh	3.0 dbh	131	>5	2
	(50m^k)					
Gerwing (2001)	Brazil	0.8 dbh	2.5 dbh	213	2-5	2
	(50m^k)					
Pérez-Salicrup	Bolivia	$0.18\ RGR_h$	$0.28\;RGR_h$	54	Seedlings	1.5
(2001) ^e	(200m)					
Duncan &	Uganda	0.2 h*	0.1 h*	-50	<1.6 h	6
Chapman (2003) ^c	(1500)					
Grauel & Putz	Panama	1.1 dbh*	1.9 dbh*	73	4-15	5
(2004) ^e	(50m^k)					
Grauel & Putz	Panama	2.8 dbh	6.0 dbh	114	≥15	5
(2004) ^e	(50m)					
Dauber et al.	Bolivia	2.2 dbh	2.6 dbh	18	≥10	3-8
(2005) site 1 ^{a1}	(500m^k)					
Dauber et al.	Bolivia	4.1 dbh	7.0 dbh	71	≥10	2-3
(2005) site 2 ^{al}	(250m^k)					
Dauber et al.	Bolivia	2.6 dbh	4.1 dbh	58	≥10	7
(2005) site 3 ^{a1}	(300m^k)					
Dauber et al.	Bolivia	3.2 dbh	3.6 dbh	13	≥10	1-4
(2005) site 4 ^{al}	(250m^k)					
Schnitzer et al.	Cote	0.22 bio	1.18 bio	436	Seedlings	2
$(2005)^{a2,c,e}$	d'Ivoire					
	(30m^{j})					

Parren & Doumbia	Cote	6.0 dbh	9.0 dbh	50	5-50	3
$(2005)^{e,g}$	d'Ivoire					
	(125m ^k)					
Campanello et al.	Argentina	3.6 RGR _c	6.4 RGR _c	78	≥10	1.75
(2007)	(200m^k)					
Peña-Claros et al.	Bolivia	0.24 dbh	0.52 dbh	116	≥10	4
(2008)	(300m^k)					
Toledo-Aceves &	Ghana	$0.062\;RGR_{d}$	$0.069~\mathrm{RGR_d}$	11	Seedlings	1
Swaine (2007) <i>a2,c,e</i>	(210m)	$(0.064\;RGR_h)$	(0.076 RGR _h)	(19)		
		$(0.119 RGR_b*)$	(0.144 RGR _b *)	(21)		
Toledo-Aceves &	Ghana	0.037 RGR _d *	0.041 RGR _d *	10	Seedlings	1-1.25
Swaine (2008)	(210m)	$(0.040\;RGR_h)$	(0.044 RGR _h)	(9)		
a2,e,h		(0.014 bio*)	(0.017 bio*)	(22)		
Van der Heijden	Peru	2.8 dbh	4.6 dbh	63	≥10	3
& Phillips (2009)	(260m)	(2.92 bio	(3.30 bio	(13)		
al,d,i		Mg ha ⁻¹)	Mg ha ⁻¹)			
Villegas et al.	Bolivia	2.0 dbh	3.0 dbh	50	10-50	4
(2009) ^e	(450m)					
Ingwell et al.	Panama	Sun 0.004 dbh _{gr}	$0.022\;dbh_{gr}$	450	4-193	10
(2010) ^{al}	(145m)	Shade -0.02 dbhgr	-0.04 dbh _{gr} ^l	100		
Schnitzer &	Panama	0.09 dbh	0.14 dbh	56	>1.3 h	8
Carson (2010) ^j	(30m^k)	(1.12 bio m ⁻²)	(2.23 bio m ⁻²)	(99)		
Álvarez-Cansino	Panama	1.98 ba	5.18 ba	162	10-20	1
et al. (2015) ^e	(30m^k)					
Van der Heijden	Panama	3.79 bio	5.50 bio	45	≥10	3

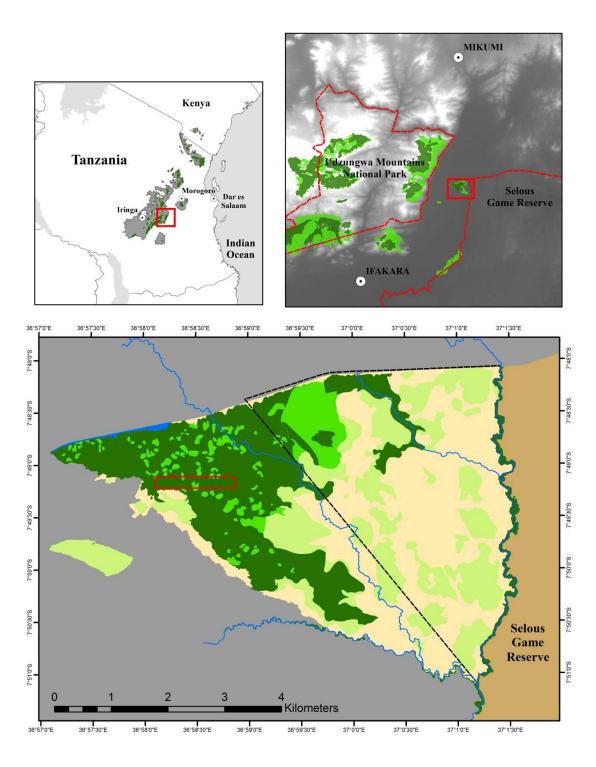
et al. (2015)	(30m^k)	Mg ha ⁻¹	Mg ha ⁻¹			
Wright et al.	Panama	$2.08~RGR_b$	2.69 RGR _b	29	≥0.5	3
(2015)	(30m^k)					
Wright et al.	Panama	-0.115 RGR _b	0.006 RGR _b	105	Seedlings	3
(2015) ^e	(30m^k)					

^aLianas not removed, instead compared ^{a1}trees with/without lianas, or ^{a2}trees planted

- with/without planted lianas. ^bLiana-cutting combined with other silvicultural treatments.
- ^cPlantation. ^dIncrements estimated from empirical models. ^eMean of focal species, mostly
- 4 commercial except for Álvarez-Cansino et al. (2015) and Wright et al. (2015). Forest trees
- 5 regenerating in fire-managed pasture. ^gData cited from an unpublished conference
- 6 presentation; size class inferred. ^hTree growth benefitted from liana absence in large gaps
- 7 (mean RGR: +14%; bio: +28%) but not small gaps/understorey (mean RGR: -1, +5; bio: -12,
- 8 -12); Only RGR_h was significant, for just one tree species in large gaps. ⁱMean of low,
- 9 medium and high light levels (18, 36 and 89% growth increase without lianas). ^jBiomass data
- 10 from Schnitzer et al. (2014). ^kElevation estimated from online map. ^lContrary to other studies,
- 11 however the highest liana density had a negative impact. *not significant.

- 1 Figure Legends
- 2 Fig. 1 Map showing the location of forest within the Eastern Arc Mountains (top left),
- 3 Kilombero valley including digital elevation model (top right, including greyscale digital
- 4 elevation model 270-2100m), and the Magombera Conservation Area showing the location of
- 5 plots (red rectangle) and Kilombero Sugar Company land (dashed black line) (Kilombero
- 6 District, Morogoro Region; bottom map). Dark green = degraded primary forest (<90%)
- 7 canopy loss; heavily degraded understorey/midstrata), mid green = secondary forest (canopy
- 8 \geq 90% canopy loss), pale green = woodland, pale yellow = grassland, grey =
- 9 agriculture/human settlement (bottom). Map by Nicolas Deere and Freddie Sutton, based on
- ground-truthing (bottom) and data from Marshall et al. (2010; top right) and Platts et al.
- 11 (2011; top left).
- Fig. 2 Forest understorey dominated by lianas (mostly *Uncaria africana* G.Don, known by
- the local Hehe tribe as "mtonasimba" ("lion's grasp" in English), because of its hooked
- spines [inset]).
- 15 Fig. 3 Mean (and 95CI) biomass of stems 1-4.9cm dbh in plots managed by liana cutting
- 16 (n=10) and unmanaged (n=8), spanning 2007-2012.
- 17 Fig. 4 Potential confounding influences on the effectiveness of liana cutting for sapling
- regeneration per 25m² plot: (a) ANCOVA interaction between wildfire frequency and liana
- 19 cutting for the prediction of biomass recruitment in liana managed (solid line, closed points;
- p=0.06) and unmanaged plots (dashed line, open points; p=0.72) (δr^2 =0.09; Table 1), and (b)
- proportional change in species richness decreasing with wildfire frequency (offset by ≤ 0.05
- to reveal overlapping points; regression: $r^2=0.29$, p=0.029, $\alpha_{EDR}=0.01$).

1 Figures



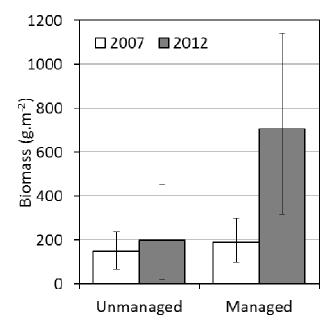
3 Fig. 1

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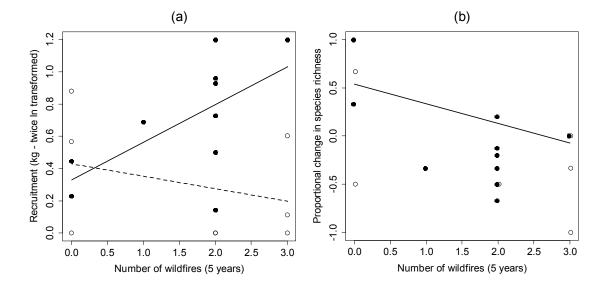


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Fig. 2



3 Fig. 3



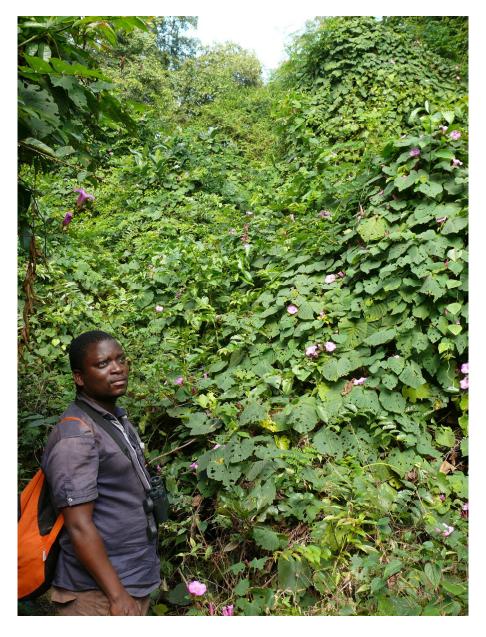
2 Fig. 4

1 Supporting Information

Table S1 Mean percentage of stems comprising the ten most common tree species (and 95CI) per unmanaged and liana-managed 5m×5m restoration plot after five years (2007-2012), compared to trees ≥10cm dbh in nearby mature forest and in the whole forest.

Unmanaged	,	Managed	<u> </u>	Nearby mature	Whole forest
(n=32 stems, eight	plots)	(n=139 stems, ten p	olots)	-	
Rothmannia macrosiphon	37.5 (0.0-93.8)	Mallotus oppositifolius	30.9 (0.0-89.9)	Lettowianthus stellatus Diels*	Isoberlinia scheffleri
(K.Schum. ex Engl.) Bridson		Müll.Arg.			(Harms) Greenway*
Calycosiphonia spathicalyx	18.8 (0.0-56.3)	Leptactina platyphylla	8.6 (0.0-25.9)	Tapura fischeri Engl.	Ochna holstii Engl.*
(K.Schum.) Robbr.		(Hiern) Wernham			
Tabernaemontana	12.5 (0.0-37.5)	Rawsonia lucida Harv. & Sond.	6.5 (0.0-19.4)	Erythrophleum suaveolens	Lettowianthus stellatus Diels*
pachysiphon Stapf				(Guill. & Perr.) Brenan*	
Markhamia lutea K.Schum.*	6.3 (0.0-18.8)	Aoranthe penduliflora	5.8 (0.0-14.4)	Xylopia longipetala	Erythrophleum suaveolens
		(K.Schum.) Somers		De Wild. & T.Durand*	(Guill. & Perr.) Brenan*
Tapura fischeri Engl.	6.3 (0.0-12.5)	Tapura fischeri Engl.	5.8 (0.0-13.7)	Pseudobersama	Calycosiphonia spathicalyx
				mossambicensis (Sim) Verdc.*	(K.Schum.) Robbr.
Antiaris toxicaria Lesch.*	3.1 (0.0-9.4)	Rothmannia macrosiphon	5.0 (0.0-15.1)	00	Diospyros abyssinica
		(K.Schum. ex Engl.) Bridson		(Harms) Greenway*	(Hiern) F.White *
Blighia unijugata Baker*	3.1 (0.0-9.4)	Voacanga Africana Stapf ex Scott Elliot	5.0 (0.0-11.5)	Dracaena mannii Baker	Tapura fischeri Engl.
Dialium holtzii Harms*	3.1 (0.0-9.4)	Tabernaemontana pachysiphon	4.3 (0.0-10.8)	Diospyros abyssinica	Craterispermum
		Stapf		(Hiern) F.White *	schweinfurthii Hiern
Leptactina platyphylla	3.1 (0.0-9.4)	Croton sylvaticus Hochst.*	3.6 (0.0-10.8)		Xylopia longipetala
(Hiern) Wernham				(K.Schum.) Somers	De Wild. & T.Durand *
Mallotus oppositifolius	3.1 (0.0-9.4)	Diospyros kabuyeana F. White	3.6 (0.0-7.2)	9	Tabernaemontana
<u>Müll.Arg.</u>				Stapf	pachysiphon Stapf
Tricalysia pallens Hiern	3.1 (0.0-9.4)			Diospyros zombensis	
-t- G				(B.L.Burtt) F.White	

^{*} Canopy species



Cover photo: Udzungwa Forest Project Co-ordinator Fadhili Njilima and degraded forest in Tanzania, where lianas have prevented forest tree regeneration for >30 years. Credit: Andrew R. Marshall. 150x199mm (300 x 300 DPI)

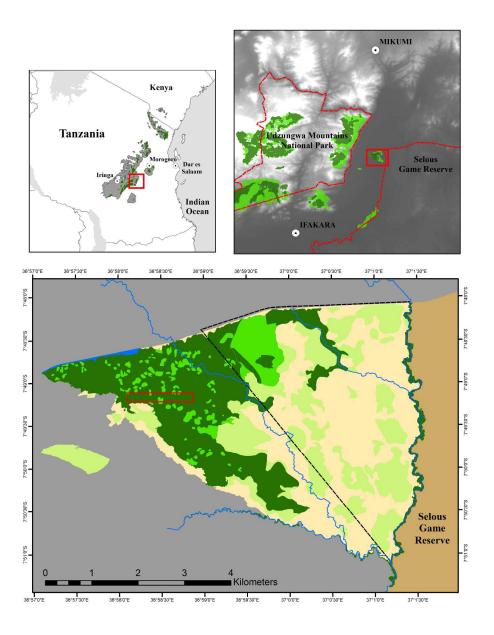


Fig. 1 Map showing the location of forest within the Eastern Arc Mountains (top left), Kilombero valley including digital elevation model (top right, including greyscale digital elevation model 270-2100m), and the Magombera Conservation Area showing the location of plots (red rectangle) and Kilombero Sugar Company land (dashed black line) (Kilombero District, Morogoro Region; bottom map). Dark green = degraded primary forest (<90% canopy loss; heavily degraded understorey/midstrata), mid green = secondary forest (canopy ≥90% canopy loss), pale green = woodland, pale yellow = grassland, grey = agriculture/human settlement (bottom). Map by Nicolas Deere and Freddie Sutton, based on ground-truthing (bottom) and data from Marshall et al. (2010; top right) and Platts et al. (2011; top left).

269x349mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fig. 2 Forest understorey dominated by lianas (mostly Uncaria africana G.Don, known by the local Hehe tribe as "mtonasimba" ("lion's grasp" in English), because of its hooked spines [inset]).

254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)

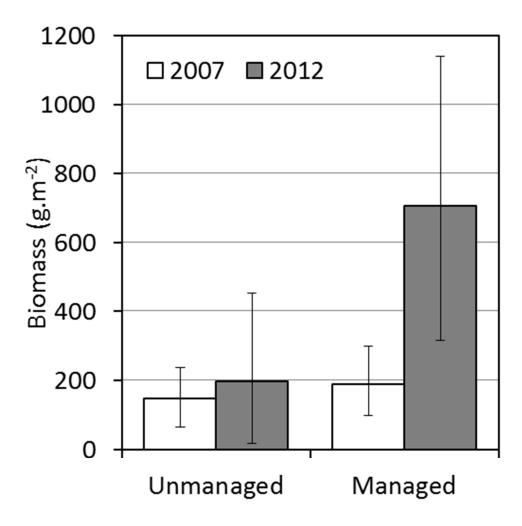


Fig. 3 Mean (and 95CI) biomass of stems 1-4.9cm dbh in plots managed by liana cutting (n=10) and unmanaged (n=8), spanning 2007-2012. 90x89mm~(149~x~149~DPI)

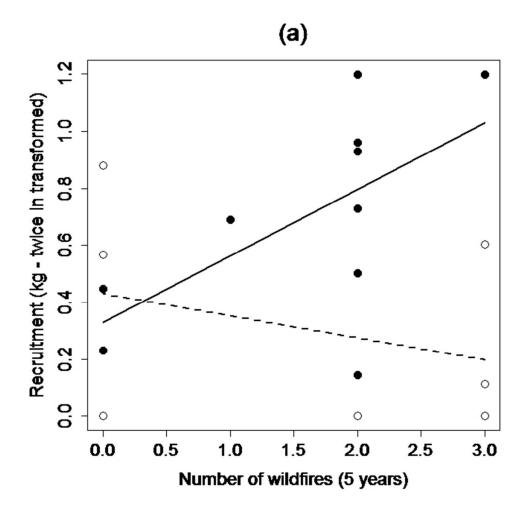
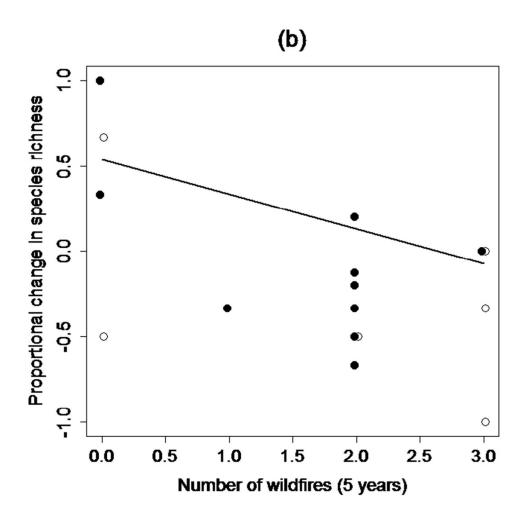


Fig. 4 Potential confounding influences on the effectiveness of liana cutting for sapling regeneration per 25m^2 plot: (a) ANCOVA interaction between wildfire frequency and liana cutting for the prediction of biomass recruitment in liana managed (solid line, closed points; p=0.06) and unmanaged plots (dashed line, open points; p=0.72) (δr^2 =0.09; Table 1), and (b) proportional change in species richness decreasing with wildfire frequency (offset by \leq 0.05 to reveal overlapping points; regression: r^2 =0.29, p=0.029, σ_{FDR} =0.01). 143x143mm (119 x 119 DPI)



Same as Fig. 4a 143x143mm (119 x 119 DPI)