

## Article

# Diversity and structure of an arid woodland in southwest Angola, with comparison to the wider miombo ecoregion

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**Abstract:** Seasonally dry woodlands are the dominant land cover across southern Africa. They are biodiverse, structurally complex and important for ecosystem service provision. Species composition and structure vary across the region producing a diverse array of woodland types. The woodlands of the Huíla plateau in southwest Angola represent the extreme southwestern extent of the miombo ecoregion and are markedly drier than other woodlands within this ecoregion. They remain understudied however, compared to woodlands further east in the miombo ecoregion. We aimed to elucidate further the tree diversity found within southwestern Angolan woodlands by conducting a plot-based study in Bicuar National Park, comparing tree species composition and woodland structure with similar plots in Tanzania, Mozambique, and the Democratic Republic of Congo. We found Bicuar National Park had comparatively low tree species diversity, but contained 27 tree species not found in other plots. Plots in Bicuar had low basal area, excepting plots dominated by *Baikiaea plurijuga*. In a comparison of plots in intact vegetation with areas previously disturbed by shifting-cultivation agriculture, we found species diversity was marginally higher in disturbed plots. Bicuar National Park remains an important woodland refuge in Angola, with an uncommon mosaic of woodland types within a small area. While we highlight wide variation in species composition and woodland structure across the miombo ecoregion, plot-based studies with more dense sampling across the ecoregion are clearly needed to more broadly understand regional variation in vegetation diversity, composition and structure.

**Keywords:** Woodland, Miombo, Savanna, Diversity, Disturbance, Baikiaea

## 1. Introduction

Tropical woodlands extend over 12 countries in central and southern Africa, with an estimated area of ~3.7 million km<sup>2</sup> [1–3]. Within this, miombo woodlands are the dominant vegetation type, characterised by trees of the *Brachystegia*, *Julbernardia* and *Isoberlinia* genera, all within the Fabaceae family, subfamily Detarioideae [4–6]. These genera are seldom found as dominant species outside miombo woodlands, and while their contribution to the biomass of miombo woodlands is substantial, it varies throughout the region [5]. Across the range of southern African woodlands, variation in climate, edaphic factors, disturbance regimes and biogeography maintain a diverse array of woodland

types in terms of both species composition and physiognomy [7–9]. Many of these woodlands have a flammable grassy understory and thus are also considered as a form of savanna [10].

The miombo ecoregion extends across the continent in a wide band that reaches north into Kenya and the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and south into the northeast of South Africa (Figure 1a). Miombo woodlands are defined both by their tree diversity and by their structure of a grassy herbaceous understorey with an often sparse tree canopy. In archetypical miombo woodlands, species of the genera *Brachystegia*, *Julbernardia* and *Isoberlinia* generally hold the most biomass, forming a mostly open woodland canopy. Distinct from dry tropical forests, miombo woodlands generally maintain a grassy understorey dominated by grass species utilizing the C<sub>4</sub> carbon fixation pathway [11]. Miombo woodlands are heavily structured by seasonal fire and herbivory, with fire particularly often preventing the creation of a closed tree canopy which would naturally occur in the absence of these disturbances [12,13]. Within the miombo ecoregion, other woodland types exist, notably, woodlands dominated by *Baikiaea plurijuga* or *Colophospermum mopane* [5].

Southern African woodlands are structurally complex but species poor in the tree layer compared to dry tropical forests which exist at similar latitudes [14,15]. These woodlands contain many endemic tree species however, and support a highly diverse woodland understorey, with an estimated 8500 species of vascular plants [16]. Miombo woodlands provide ecosystem service provision for an estimated 150 million people [17]. Additionally miombo woodlands hold ~18-24 Pg C in woody biomass and soil organic carbon, which is comparable to that held in the rainforests of the Congo basin (~30 Pg C) [18]. As woodland resource extraction and conversion to agricultural land accelerates due to growing human populations, the conservation of miombo woodlands as a biodiverse and unique ecosystem has become a growing concern. Despite their importance however, dry tropical woodlands remain understudied compared to wet forests across the globe [19].

Over the previous two decades, the limited ecological research in southern African woodlands has been concentrated in the central and eastern parts of the miombo region, notably in southern Tanzania, Mozambique, Malawi, Zimbabwe and Zambia. The southwestern extent of miombo woodlands, which is found entirely within Angola has received considerably less attention [20]. Partly this is due to diminished research capacity during the Angolan civil war following the country's independence, which took place officially between 1975 and 2002, but with sporadic localised periods of civil unrest until around 2012 [21]. While botanical surveys of woodlands in this region are more plentiful [20,22], joint studies of woodland species composition and physical structure remain scarce. This is despite the value of these studies in helping to estimate woodland net primary productivity, carbon sequestration potential, and studies of community assembly. To properly understand spatial variation in woodland species composition and physical structure across the miombo ecoregion, it is necessary to fill understudied gaps. In this study we aim to address one such gap in southwest Angola, and place it in context with other woodlands across the miombo ecoregion.

The miombo woodlands of southwest Angola are found in their most intact form in Bicuar National Park and to a lesser extent in the adjacent Mupa National Park, on the Huíla plateau [23]. Both of these national parks have been protected to varying extents since 1938 [20]. These woodlands exist in much drier conditions than other miombo woodlands, precipitation diminishes rapidly within the Huíla plateau towards the Angolan coast and the Namib desert (Figure 1a). The vegetation of the Huíla plateau holds many endemic species, around 83 endemic Fabaceae species [24] and the most endemic plant species of any part of Angola [25]. Linder [26] and Droissart *et al.* [27] both identify the western portion of the Huíla plateau as a centre of tropical African endemism.

Much of the historic miombo woodland area in southwest Angola surrounding the Bicuar and Mupa National Parks has been deforested in recent years, with a clear increase in deforestation activity since the end of the civil war owing to an increase in rural population and agricultural activity [20,28]. The western extent of miombo woodlands found within Bicuar National Park plateau are therefore of great importance for conservation as a refuge for wildlife and endemic plant species [20].

77 It is important to focus not only on the biodiversity of undisturbed woodland areas but also  
78 previously disturbed land in order to properly assess the biodiversity and woodland structure of the  
79 Park. Woodland disturbance through shifting cultivation practices produces novel habitats which  
80 are not necessarily of lower conservation value [29,30]. Since Bicuar National Park's rejuvenation  
81 following the reinforcement of park boundaries after the civil war, many areas of woodland that were  
82 previously heavily grazed, farmed via shifting cultivation techniques, and used for timber extraction  
83 have been allowed to re-establish and are now protected from further human resource extraction. This  
84 presents a unique opportunity to compare the species composition of these disturbed areas with areas  
85 of nearby woodland that have not been farmed in living memory.

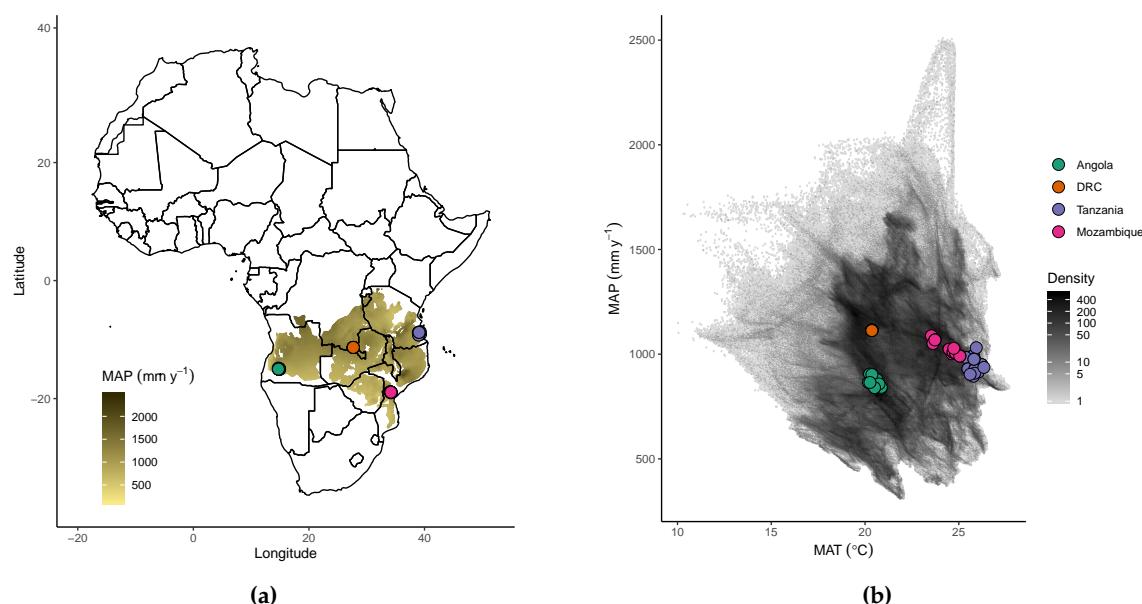
86 In this study we present results of the tree diversity and woodland structure of miombo woodlands  
87 found at the far western extent of miombo woodlands in Bicuar National Park, Huíla province, Angola.  
88 Our study utilised recently installed biodiversity monitoring plots set up within the Park in 2018 and  
89 2019. We compare the tree diversity and woodland structure of Bicuar National Park with biodiversity  
90 monitoring plots previously established in other areas of miombo woodland across the miombo  
91 ecoregion which use a common plot biodiversity census methodology. In addition, we take advantage  
92 of a unique opportunity to compare the tree species composition of areas of abandoned and now  
93 protected farmland that have begun to re-establish as woodland. Specifically, this study aims to:

- 94 1. Describe the tree species diversity and structure of woodlands in Bicuar National Park, and  
95 compare this composition with other woodlands across the miombo eco-region
- 96 2. Explore the role of environmental factors in driving changes in tree species composition across  
97 the miombo ecoregion
- 98 3. Describe variation in tree species composition and woodland structure between disturbed and  
99 undisturbed woodland patches within Bicuar National Park

## 100 2. Materials and Methods

### 101 2.1. Study area

102 We chose three areas of miombo woodland across the miombo ecoregion to compare with those  
103 in Bicuar National Park, Angola ( $S15.1^{\circ}$ ,  $E14.8^{\circ}$ ). The three sites were Gorongosa District in central  
104 Mozambique ( $S19.0^{\circ}$ ,  $E34.2^{\circ}$ ) [31], Kilwa District in southern Tanzania ( $S9.0^{\circ}$ ,  $E39.0^{\circ}$ ) [32], and the  
105 Mikembo Natural Reserve in Katanga, southern Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) ( $S11.5^{\circ}$ ,  $E27.7^{\circ}$ )  
106 [33]. Within each of these woodland sites, multiple one hectare square plots had been installed  
107 previously to monitor biodiversity and biomass dynamics. In Katanga, a larger 10 ha plot was  
108 subdivided into ten 1 ha plots for this study. We used these previous censuses, collected between  
109 2010 and 2019, to estimate tree biodiversity and woodland structure. Sites range in Mean Annual  
110 Precipitation (MAP) from 864 mm  $y^{-1}$  in Bicuar to 1115 mm  $y^{-1}$  in Katanga. Mean Annual Temperature  
111 ranges from  $\sim 20.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in Bicuar and Katanga to  $\sim 25.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  in Kilwa (Figure 1b, Table 1).



**Figure 1.** Locations of plots used in this study, by (a) geographic location with respect to the distribution of miombo woodland vegetation (shaded brown according to mean annual precipitation) [1], and (b) showing the plot locations compared to the climate space of the miombo ecoregion estimated using the WorldClim dataset over the Miombo woodland vegetation extent with a pixel size of 30 arc seconds (0.86 km<sup>2</sup> at the equator) [34]. Note that the density colour scale is log-transformed for visual clarity.

**Table 1.** Description of each group of plots used in the analysis. MAT = Mean Annual Temperature, MAP = Mean Annual Precipitation, CWD = Climatic Water Deficit, DD = Decimal Degrees.

Plot group	MAT (°C)	MAP (mm y <sup>-1</sup> )	CWD (mm y <sup>-1</sup> )	Latitude (DD)	Longitude (DD)	N plots	N species
Bicuar NP	20.5	864	-815	-15.12	14.81	15	49
DRC	20.4	1115	-762	-11.49	27.67	12	89
Mozambique	24.4	1029	-662	-18.95	34.16	15	162
Tanzania	25.8	956	-754	-9.05	39.05	22	248

112 Bicuar National Park covers an area of ~7900 km<sup>2</sup>, established as a hunting reserve in 1938,  
 113 and later as a national park in 1964 (Figure 2). While fauna populations in the Park were severely  
 114 damaged by the Angolan civil war, the interior of the Park remains as a largely intact mosaic of miombo  
 115 woodland, Baikiaea-Burkea woodland, shrub/thicket vegetation and seasonally flooded grassland.  
 116 Encroachment of agriculture and grazing, particularly along the northwest and western boundaries of  
 117 the Park, has led to a fragmented park boundary with patches of diminished thicket and woodland in  
 118 areas of previously farmed land that have been protected since park boundaries were re-established  
 119 following the end of the civil war.

120 Plots in Tanzania were located predominantly within or near the Mtarure Forest Reserve,  
 121 administrated by the Tanzania Forest Service and protected from human incursion since their  
 122 installation. Plots were established between 2010 and 2011 in grassy savanna/woodland areas, with  
 123 plots located along the road network with a 1 km buffer from the road. Plots in Mozambique were  
 124 established in 2004, in areas of miombo woodland that had been previously used for agriculture but  
 125 since left fallow, and areas of undisturbed miombo woodland, located along the road network, with all  
 126 plots >250 m from the road. Plots in DRC were established in 2009 and located within a larger 800 ha  
 127 miombo woodland reserve, which consists of undisturbed miombo woodlands. All plots were located  
 128 quasi-randomly, with consideration to accessibility for future woodland censuses.

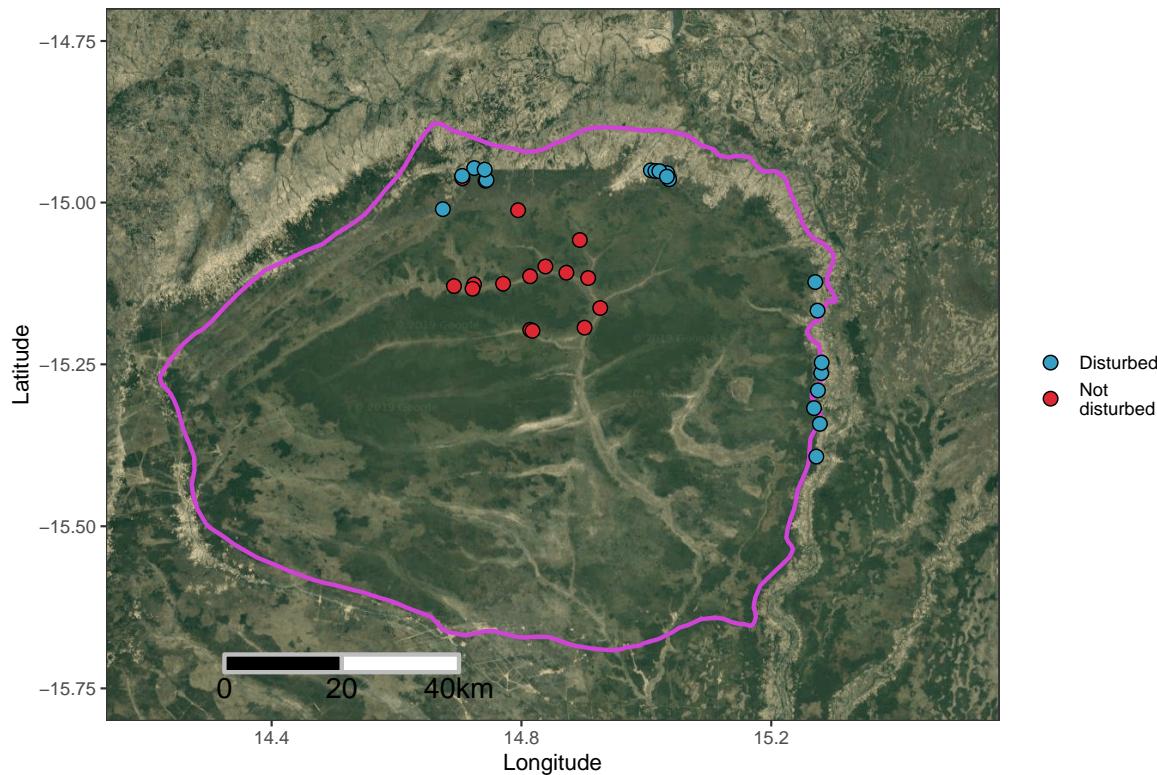
129 2.2. Plot data collection

130 We sampled 15 one hectare plots in Bicuar National Park and collated data from a total of 64 one  
131 hectare plots across the miombo ecoregion within four sites. [Figure 1a](#) and [Table 1](#) show the locations  
132 and general description of each site, respectively. Plots in Bicuar were situated at least 500 m from the  
133 edge of a woodland patch to prevent edge effects which may have altered tree species composition.

134 Within each plot, every tree stem  $\geq 5$  cm stem diameter was recorded, except in the DRC plots,  
135 where only stems  $\geq 10$  cm stem diameter were recorded. For each tree stem the species and stem  
136 diameter were recorded. Tree species were identified using local botanists at each site and taxonomy  
137 was later checked against the African Plant Database [35]. At all sites, we used Palgrave [36], along with  
138 other texts, to identify tree species. Specimens that could not be identified in the field, or subsequently  
139 at herbaria, were described as morphospecies. All tree species within the Bicuar National Park plots  
140 were identified. Tree coppicing due to fire, herbivory, and human actions is common in miombo  
141 woodlands, therefore, for trees with multiple stems, each stem  $\geq 5$  cm stem diameter was recorded,  
142 while the parent tree was also recorded for diversity analyses described below.

143 Stem diameter was recorded at 1.3 m from the ground along the stem (diameter at breast height,  
144 DBH) as per convention using a diameter tape measure [37]. Where stem abnormalities were present  
145 at 1.3 m from the ground, which precluded the accurate estimation of stem diameter at 1.3 m, the  
146 stem diameter was recorded at the nearest 10 cm increment above 1.3 m without significant stem  
147 abnormalities [37]. To ensure consistency among stem diameter values recorded at different heights,  
148 when the stem diameter was recorded at a height other than 1.3 m the stem diameter at 1.3 m was  
149 estimated from the recorded stem diameter using a cubic polynomial equation which adjusts for tree  
150 stem taper. This equation was calibrated on 100 stems measured at multiple heights in Niassa Province,  
151 Mozambique ([Appendix A](#)). Stems below 10 cm stem diameter were not measured in the DRC plots.  
152 We therefore estimated the number of 5-10 cm stems in each these plots by extrapolating a linear  
153 regression of log stem abundance across the available stem diameter classes.

154 In addition to the one hectare plots across the miombo ecoregion, we compared the tree  
155 biodiversity of undisturbed areas of miombo woodland in Bicuar National Park with areas of disturbed  
156 woodland around the edge of the Park that had been previously farmed via shifting cultivation  
157 methods, and had since been abandoned and reclaimed within the Park boundaries [Figure 2](#). We  
158 identified areas previously farmed with the help of park rangers and local residents who identified  
159 these areas from memory. We conducted 20 plot surveys of woodland diversity and structure in these  
160 areas with 20x50 m (0.1 ha) plots, and compared their diversity and structure with 20x50 m subsamples  
161 of the 15 one hectare plots within the Park interior. Like the one hectare plots, within these smaller  
162 20x50 m plots we recorded the species and stem diameter of every tree stem  $\geq 5$  cm stem diameter.



**Figure 2.** Location of plots in Bicuar National Park, southwest Angola. The Park boundary is shown as a pink outline, according to UNEP-WCMC and IUCN [38]. One hectare undisturbed plots are shown as red points, while disturbed 20x50 m (0.1 hectare) plots are shown as blue points. The map background is a true colour composite satellite image generated using the Google Maps Static Maps API in the `ggmap` R package [39].

### 163 2.3. Climatic data

164 The WorldClim dataset [34] was used to gather data on plot-level climatic conditions. We  
 165 estimated Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) as the mean of total annual precipitation values between  
 166 1970 and 2000, and Mean Annual Temperature (MAT) as the mean of mean annual temperatures  
 167 between 1970 and 2000. The seasonality of temperature (MAT SD) was calculated as the standard  
 168 deviation of monthly temperature per year, respectively. We estimated Climatic Water Deficit (CWD)  
 169 for each plot according to [40], as the sum of the difference between monthly rainfall and monthly  
 170 evapotranspiration when the difference is negative, using the dataset available at [http://ups-tlse.fr/pantropical\\_allometry.htm](http://ups-tlse.fr/pantropical_allometry.htm), which uses data from the WorldClim dataset 1970–2000.  
 171

### 172 2.4. Data analysis

173 We calculated the basal area of each stem ( $g_i$ ) using:

$$g_i = \pi \times (d_i/2)^2 \quad (1)$$

174 Where  $d_i$  is the estimated stem diameter of stem  $i$  at 1.3 m having accounted for tree taper. We  
 175 then calculated the total basal area of each plot as the sum of each stem's basal area. For the DRC plots  
 176 which lacked 5–10 cm stems, we estimated basal area in this stem diameter class from our extrapolation  
 177 of stem abundance in the 5–10 cm diameter class, assuming a mean stem diameter of 7.5 cm.

<sup>178</sup> All diversity measures were calculated on individual tree-level data, rather than stem-level data,  
<sup>179</sup> to avoid artificial inflation of abundance for those species which readily coppice. We calculated the  
<sup>180</sup> alpha diversity of each plot using both the tree species richness of trees with stems  $\geq 5$  cm diameter,  
<sup>181</sup> and the Shannon-Wiener index ( $H'$ ) (Equation 2), using the vegan package in R [41]:

$$H' = - \sum_{i=1}^S p_i \ln p_i \quad (2)$$

<sup>182</sup> Where  $S$  is the total number of species in the plot,  $p_i$  is the proportional abundance of the  $i$ th  
<sup>183</sup> species and  $\ln$  is the natural logarithm.

<sup>184</sup> We calculated the pairwise beta diversity among sites using the Sørensen coefficient ( $S_S$ )  
<sup>185</sup> (Equation 3) [42]:

$$S_S = \frac{2a}{2a + b + c} \quad (3)$$

<sup>186</sup> Where  $a$  is the number of species shared between two sites,  $b$  is the number of species unique to  
<sup>187</sup> site 1 and  $c$  is the number of species unique to site 2. We calculated  $S_S$  for each pairwise combination  
<sup>188</sup> of sites using aggregated species composition data from all plots in each site. The value of  $S_S$ , which  
<sup>189</sup> ranges between zero and one, was multiplied by 100 to give a “percentage similarity” between  
<sup>190</sup> communities in species composition.

<sup>191</sup> We estimated abundance evenness for each plot using the Shannon equitability index ( $E_{H'}$ ) [43]  
<sup>192</sup> which is the ratio of  $H'$  to the log transformed species richness.

<sup>193</sup> We analysed the difference in alpha diversity measures and woodland structural variables among  
<sup>194</sup> groups of plots using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical models, with a null hypothesis that  
<sup>195</sup> there was no difference among the mean values of groups of plots. Post-hoc Tukey's HSD tests were  
<sup>196</sup> used to investigate the degree to which pairwise combinations of plot groups differed in each case.

<sup>197</sup> We used Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) to assess the variation in species  
<sup>198</sup> composition among one hectare plots, and also between disturbed and undisturbed 20x50 m plots  
<sup>199</sup> within Bicuar National Park, using the vegan R package. The number of dimensions for NMDS was  
<sup>200</sup> minimised while ensuring the stress value of the NMDS fit was  $\leq 0.1$ . NMDS analyses were run with  
<sup>201</sup> 500 random restarts to ensure a global solution was reached. We used Bray-Curtis dissimilarity as the  
<sup>202</sup> optimal measure of ecological distance [44]. We fit plot-level estimates of MAP, MAT, the seasonality  
<sup>203</sup> of MAT and CWD to the first two axes of the resulting ordination using the envfit function in the  
<sup>204</sup> vegan R package to investigate how these environmental factors influenced the grouping of species  
<sup>205</sup> composition among plots. All analyses were conducted in R version 3.6.1 [45].

### <sup>206</sup> 3. Results

#### <sup>207</sup> 3.1. Alpha diversity

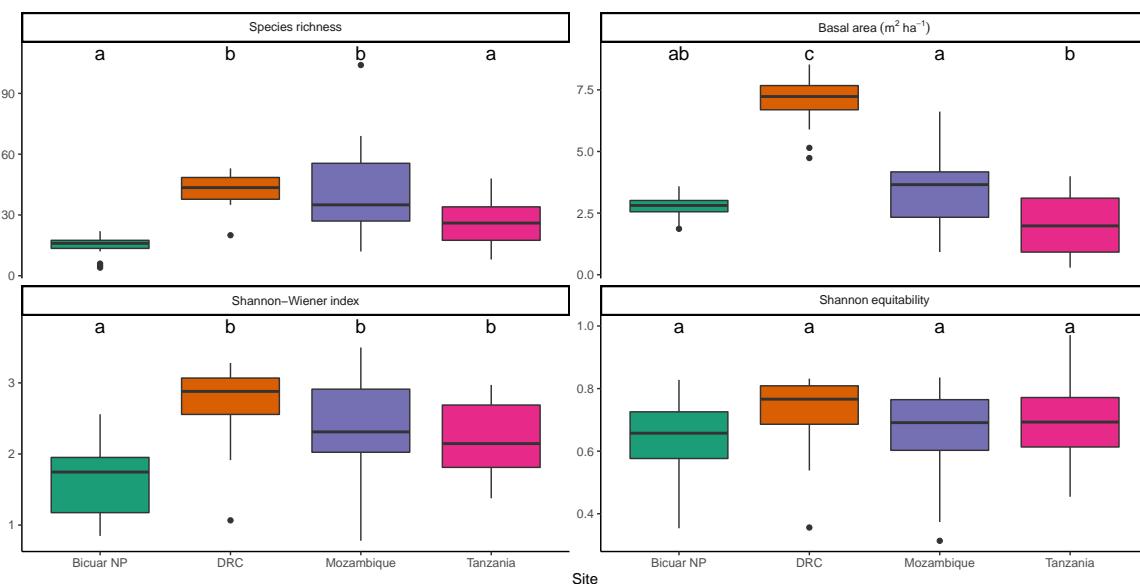
<sup>208</sup> In Bicuar National Park we measured a total of 6565 trees within the one hectare plots, and across  
<sup>209</sup> the four sites, a total of 25525 trees were sampled. Trees in Bicuar National Park belonged to 48 species  
<sup>210</sup> within 18 families. Across all four sites we recorded 468 species from 43 families. The most diverse  
<sup>211</sup> family within each site and among all plots was Fabaceae with 61 species. We encountered 27 tree  
<sup>212</sup> species in Bicuar National Park which were not found in the other miombo woodland plots (Table 2).  
<sup>213</sup> The most common of these unique species were *Brachystegia tamarindoides* ( $n = 576$ ), *Baikiaea plurijuga*  
<sup>214</sup> ( $n = 331$ ) and *Baphia massaiensis* ( $n = 303$ ). Four species unique to Bicuar National Park within this  
<sup>215</sup> dataset only had one individual recorded: *Elachyptera parvifolia*, *Entandrophragma spicatum*, *Oldfieldia*  
<sup>216</sup> *dactylophylla*, *Peltophorum africanum*.

<sup>217</sup> Alpha diversity in Bicuar National Park was low compared to other sites (Figure 3). Mean  
<sup>218</sup>  $H'$  across plots in Bicuar National Park was  $1.6 \pm 0.13$ . An ANOVA showed a significant difference  
<sup>219</sup> in  $H'$  among sites ( $F(3,60) = 7.54$ ,  $p < 0.01$ , Table 3), and a post-hoc Tukey's test showed that  $H'$  in

**Table 2.** Species found in one hectare plots in Bicuar National Park. Stem diameter and basal area are the mean of all stems with the standard error of the mean in parentheses. Number of stems per hectare is mean of the number of stems in all one hectare plots where stems of that species are present with the standard error of the mean in parentheses. Species found only in Bicuar National Park are marked in bold text with an asterisk.

Family	Species	Stem diam. (cm)	Basal area (m <sup>2</sup> ha <sup>-1</sup> )	N stems	N stems ha <sup>-1</sup>
Fabaceae	<i>Albizia antunesiana</i>	9.1(2.03)	0.07(0.040)	40	8(4.81)
Fabaceae	* <i>Baikiae plurijuga</i>	28.9(0.75)	1.72(0.570)	331	55.2(17.83)
Fabaceae	* <i>Baphia bequaertii</i>	7.4(0.36)	0.08(0.050)	127	31.8(18.14)
Fabaceae	* <i>Baphia massaiensis</i>	6.6(0.17)	0.05(0.020)	303	30.3(11.20)
Fabaceae	<i>Bobgunnia madagascariensis</i>	7.8(0.91)	0.04(0.020)	32	10.7(9.67)
Fabaceae	* <i>Brachystegia glaucescens</i>	12.9(0.48)	1.14(0.430)	576	115.2(72.67)
Fabaceae	<i>Brachystegia spiciformis</i>	11.4(0.52)	0.74(0.430)	326	81.5(46.56)
Phyllanthaceae	* <i>Bridelia mollis</i>	5.7(0.31)	0.02(NA)	23	23(NA)
Fabaceae	<i>Burkea africana</i>	8.5(0.33)	0.39(0.120)	863	71.9(19.11)
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum apiculatum</i>	7.6(0.45)	0.06(0.040)	60	30(15.00)
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum celastroides</i>	5.6(0.34)	<0.01(0.000)	7	3.5(2.50)
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum collinum</i>	6.3(0.09)	0.07(0.020)	609	50.8(20.48)
Combretaceae	* <i>Combretum hereroense</i>	6.7(0.26)	0.02(0.010)	73	12.2(5.69)
Combretaceae	* <i>Combretum psidioides</i>	7.4(0.43)	0.01(0.010)	33	6.6(4.17)
Combretaceae	<i>Combretum zeyheri</i>	6.3(0.35)	0.01(0.000)	61	10.2(3.03)
Euphorbiaceae	* <i>Croton gratissimus</i>	6.1(1.55)	<0.01(NA)	4	4(NA)
Ebenaceae	* <i>Diospyros batocana</i>	8.4(2.14)	<0.01(0.000)	2	1(0.00)
Ebenaceae	* <i>Diospyros kirkii</i>	9.3(1.64)	0.03(NA)	11	11(NA)
Apocynaceae	<i>Diplorhynchus condylocarpon</i>	8.2(0.52)	0.08(0.060)	174	19.3(7.57)
Malvaceae	* <i>Dombeya rotundifolia</i>	5.5(0.19)	<0.01(NA)	2	2(NA)
Celastraceae	* <i>Elachyptera parvifolia</i>	7.3(NA)	<0.01(NA)	1	1(NA)
Meliaceae	* <i>Entandrophragma spicatum</i>	14.6(NA)	<0.01(NA)	1	1(NA)
Fabaceae	<i>Erythrophleum africanum</i>	9.0(0.84)	0.10(0.040)	128	18.3(6.82)
Rubiaceae	* <i>Gardenia volkensii</i>	5.6(1.15)	<0.01(0.000)	5	2.5(1.50)
Fabaceae	* <i>Guibourtia coleosperma</i>	7.2(1.00)	0.02(0.010)	31	6.2(3.54)
Phyllanthaceae	<i>Hymenocardia acida</i>	5.9(1.25)	<0.01(NA)	6	6(NA)
Fabaceae	<i>Julbernardia paniculata</i>	10.1(0.21)	0.92(0.200)	1624	162.4(50.60)
Fabaceae	* <i>Lonchocarpus nelsii</i>	13.4(0.88)	0.15(0.030)	165	15(2.77)
Dipterocarpaceae	* <i>Monotes angolensis</i>	7.4(0.83)	<0.01(0.000)	2	1(0.00)
Ochnaceae	* <i>Ochna pulchra</i>	6.5(0.80)	0.01(0.000)	26	8.7(3.76)
Picrodendraceae	* <i>Oldfieldia dactylophylla</i>	8.5(NA)	<0.01(NA)	1	1(NA)
Fabaceae	* <i>Peltophorum africanum</i>	11.5(NA)	<0.01(NA)	1	1(NA)
Fabaceae	<i>Pericopsis angolensis</i>	8.4(0.61)	0.06(0.020)	97	12.1(5.08)
Phyllanthaceae	<i>Pseudolachnostylis maprouneifolia</i>	6.7(0.45)	0.03(0.010)	84	9.3(3.00)
Combretaceae	* <i>Pteleopsis anisoptera</i>	6.8(0.46)	0.07(0.020)	81	20.2(15.11)
Fabaceae	<i>Pterocarpus angolensis</i>	13.0(0.61)	0.15(0.100)	102	17(8.65)
Fabaceae	* <i>Pterocarpus lucens</i>	6.9(0.94)	<0.01(NA)	4	4(NA)
Rubiaceae	* <i>Rothmannia engleriana</i>	6.8(0.66)	<0.01(0.000)	5	1.7(0.67)
Euphorbiaceae	* <i>Schinziophyton rautanenii</i>	8.0(2.82)	<0.01(NA)	3	3(NA)
Polygalaceae	<i>Securidaca longepedunculata</i>	7.3(1.12)	<0.01(0.010)	4	2(1.00)
Loganiaceae	<i>Strychnos cocculoides</i>	10.4(1.17)	0.03(0.020)	19	6.3(3.53)
Loganiaceae	* <i>Strychnos pungens</i>	6.1(0.48)	<0.01(0.000)	18	3.6(0.93)
Loganiaceae	<i>Strychnos spinosa</i>	6.8(0.36)	0.02(0.010)	97	9.7(4.07)
Combretaceae	* <i>Terminalia brachystemma</i>	6.5(0.21)	0.04(0.020)	174	29(12.04)
Combretaceae	<i>Terminalia sericea</i>	7.1(0.28)	0.06(0.030)	214	23.8(12.18)
Ximeniaceae	<i>Ximenia americana</i>	6.1(0.53)	<0.01(0.000)	7	1.8(0.25)
Sapindaceae	<i>Zantha africana</i>	9.4(1.12)	0.01(NA)	6	6(NA)
Rhamnaceae	* <i>Ziziphus abyssinica</i>	5.9(1.13)	<0.01(NA)	2	2(NA)

plots in Bicuar National Park was significantly different from those in DRC ( $H' = 2.7 \pm 0.19$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), Mozambique ( $H' = 2.4 \pm 0.2$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and Tanzania ( $H' = 2.2 \pm 0.11$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Variation in  $H'$  is large within Bicuar National Park, with  $H'$  ranging from 0.85 to 2.56, but this was a similar range to other sites. In contrast, the range of species richness within Bicuar National Park was much lower than other sites, suggesting that the wide range in  $H'$  was caused by variation in abundance evenness.



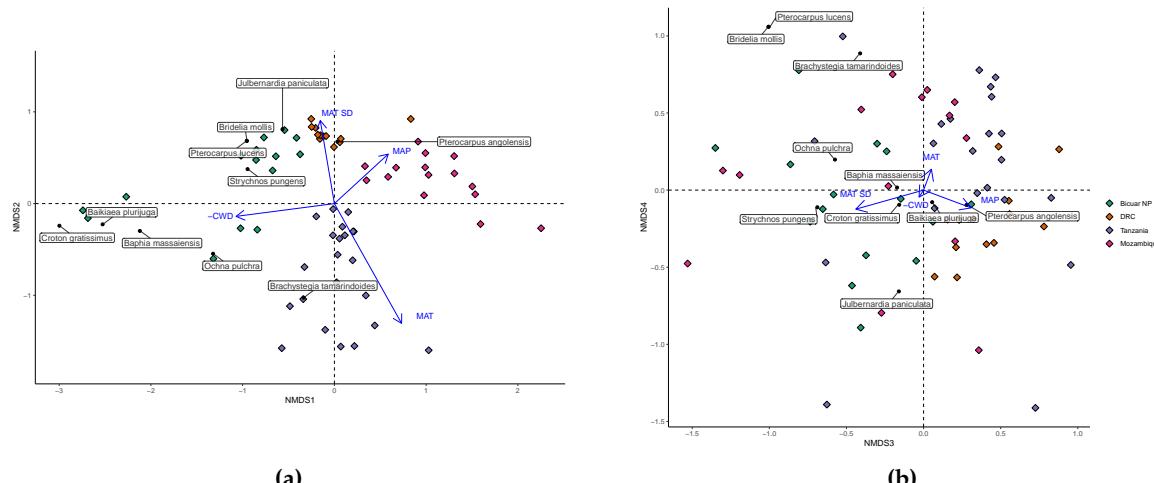
**Figure 3.** Variation of alpha diversity estimates and basal area among sites. Boxes bound the 1st and 3rd quartiles, with the median within the box. Whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range plus or minus the 1st and 3rd quartiles, respectively. Values found beyond the whiskers are shown individually as points. Letter labels above each box refer to groupings from post-hoc Tukey's tests on the ANOVA of each diversity/structure variable. Sites sharing a letter do not differ significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ).

### 3.2. Beta diversity

The NMDS of plot species composition among one hectare plots was run with four dimensions. The stress value was 0.10. Plot diversity in Bicuar National Park formed three distinct groups within axes 1 and 2 of the NMDS ordination. Bicuar plots 9, 13, and 15 were characterised by high abundances of *Baikiaea plurijuga*, *Baphia massaiensis* and *Croton gratissimum*, according to species scores from the NMDS. Bicuar plots 4, 11, and 12 were characterised by *Brachystegia tamarindoides*, and *Ochna pulchra*. The third group consisting of the remaining seven plots surprisingly had a species composition most similar to that of plots in the DRC group according to the NMDS, sharing the core miombo species of *Julbernardia paniculata* and *Pterocarpus angolensis*. This group of plots in Bicuar National Park was further characterised by the abundance of *Pterocarpus lucens*, *Strychnos pungens* and *Bridelia mollis* however, which were not present in the DRC plots. All environmental factors fitted to the NMDS ordination correlated significantly with the grouping of plots (Figure 4a). MAT explained the most variation in plot position on the first two NMDS axes ( $R^2 = 0.75$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), followed by CWD ( $R^2 = 0.54$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), the seasonality of MAT ( $R^2 = 0.46$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and MAP ( $R^2 = 0.4$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Variation in MAP explained much of the difference among plots in Bicuar National Park versus those in Tanzania and Mozambique. Axes 3 and 4 showed a greater degree of overlap in species composition among plot groups, with plots from Bicuar National Park similar to a select few plots in both Tanzania and Mozambique (Figure 4b). Axis 3 distinguished plots in Bicuar NP from those in DRC, while plots from all geographic area overlapped in their distribution across Axis 4. Axes 3 and 4 largely reflected distribution patterns of less abundant species and not the dominant species in the vegetation.

**Table 3.** Results of ANOVA tests for alpha diversity metrics and plot basal area, among the four sites. Mean values for each site with standard errors in parentheses are shown. Asterisks indicate the p-value of individual sites in each ANOVA (\*\*<0.001, \*\*<0.01, \*<0.05, .<0.1).

	Dependent variable:			
	Species richness	Basal area	Shannon ( $H'$ )	Shannon equit. ( $E_H$ )
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
DRC	27.920*** (5.538)	4.175*** (0.452)	1.055*** (0.236)	0.080 (0.053)
Tanzania	12.440** (4.788)	-0.721* (0.391)	0.605*** (0.204)	0.064 (0.046)
Mozambique	27.930*** (5.221)	0.653 (0.427)	0.792*** (0.223)	0.028 (0.050)
Constant	14.330*** (3.692)	2.778*** (0.302)	1.617*** (0.158)	0.631*** (0.035)
Observations	64	64	64	64
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	0.363	0.691	0.237	0.003
Residual Std. Error (df = 60)	14.300	1.168	0.611	0.137
F Statistic (df = 3; 60)	12.980***	48.040***	7.537***	1.000



**Figure 4.** Environmental factors fitted to axes 1 and 2 (a), 3 and 4 (b) of the NMDS ordination of species composition of one hectare plots, showing the variation in plot species composition within and among sites. Diamonds are plot scores coloured by site. The lengths of arrows indicating environmental factor fits to the first two ordination axes are scaled by  $R^2$ . Arrows point in the direction of increasing values of that environmental factor. Note that Climatic Water Deficit (CWD) is expressed in more intuitively as the negative inverse of CWD, thus larger values indicate higher levels of CWD.

The pairwise Sørensen coefficient of percentage similarity ( $S_S$ ) showed that the species composition of plots in Bicuar National Park had low similarity with other sites in the study, sharing few species with other sites (Table 4). Similar to the NMDS, these results show that plots in Bicuar National Park are most similar to those found in DRC.

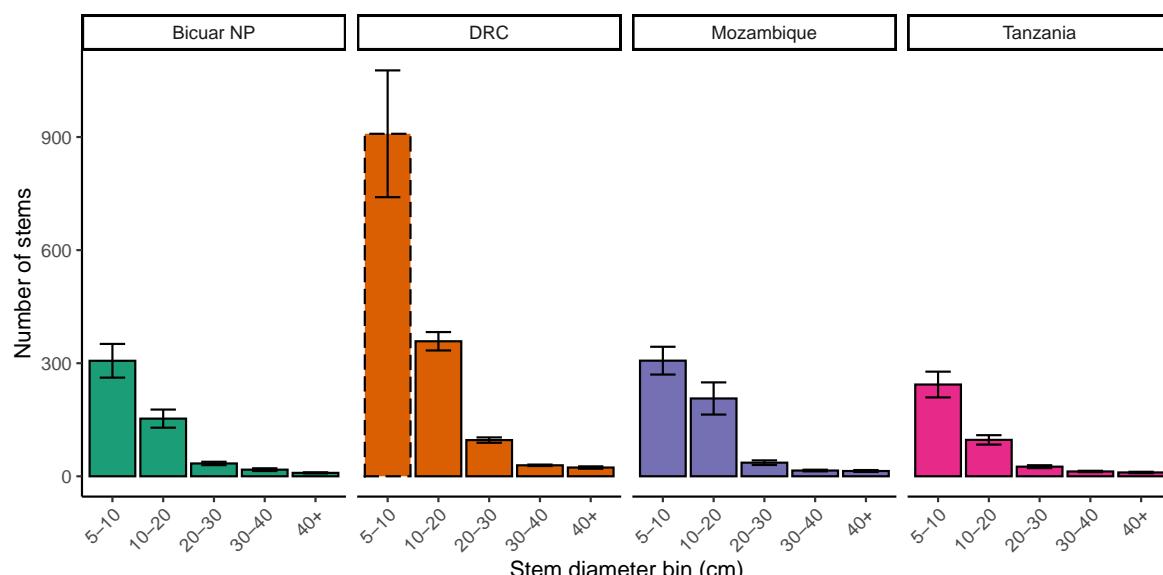
**Table 4.** Pairwise beta diversity comparison of plot groups measured by the Sørensen coefficient ( $S_S$ ) of percentage similarity of aggregated plot level data from each of the four sites. Values in parentheses are the number of species unique to each site in each comparison.

Site 1	Site 2	$S_S$	Shared species
Bicuar NP(34)	DRC(74)	20.6	14
Bicuar NP(34)	Tanzania(147)	13.4	14
Bicuar NP(37)	Mozambique(236)	7.5	11
DRC(64)	Tanzania(137)	19.3	24
DRC(69)	Mozambique(228)	11.3	19
Tanzania(139)	Mozambique(225)	10.8	22

### 3.3. Woodland structure

Mean basal area of plots in Bicuar National Park was  $2.78 \pm 0.122 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ , ranging from  $1.86$  to  $8.53 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$  (Figure 3). An ANOVA showed a significant difference in basal area among sites ( $F(3,60) = 48.04$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and a post-hoc Tukey's test showed that basal area in Bicuar National Park was significantly lower than plots in DRC ( $\text{BA} = 6.95 \pm 0.327 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), but there were no significant differences between Bicuar and Mozambique ( $\text{BA} = 3.43 \pm 0.409 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.43$ ) or Tanzania ( $\text{BA} = 2.06 \pm 0.253 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ,  $p = 0.26$ ) (Figure 3). Additionally, Bicuar plots had less variation in basal area among plots than other sites. Plots in Bicuar with the highest basal area were dominated by *Baikiaea plurijuga* and *Baphia massaiensis* (Plots 9, 13, and 15).

The stem diameter abundance distribution in Bicuar National Park was comparable with other sites (Figure 5), albeit with fewer stems in each class. The slope of log mean stem size distribution among diameter bins was  $-0.92 \pm 0.067$  in Bicuar National Park,  $-0.99 \pm 0.067$  in DRC,  $-0.89 \pm 0.065$  in Tanzania, and  $-0.87 \pm 0.075$  in Mozambique.



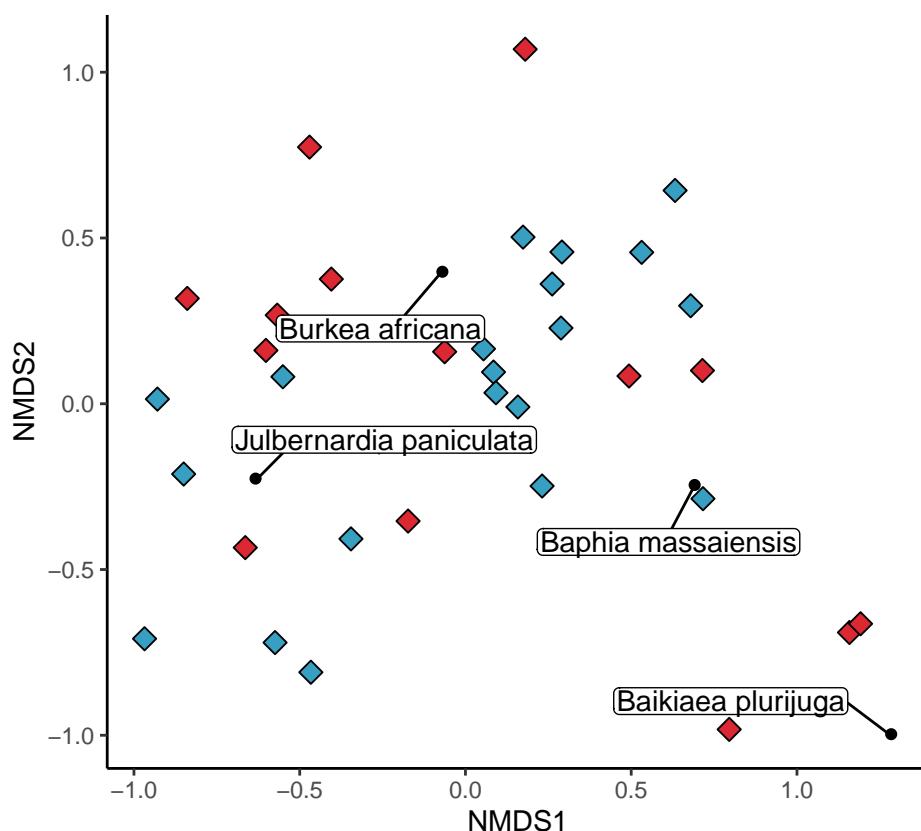
**Figure 5.** Ranked variation between plots in stem number within each site, with bars according to stem diameter class. Error bars are the mean  $\pm 1$  standard error. The dashed bar for the DRC 5-10 cm stem diameter class indicates that these measurements were estimated by extrapolating a linear regression of log stem abundance across the available stem diameter classes for DRC.

### 3.4. Effect of disturbance via shifting cultivation on diversity within Bicuar National Park

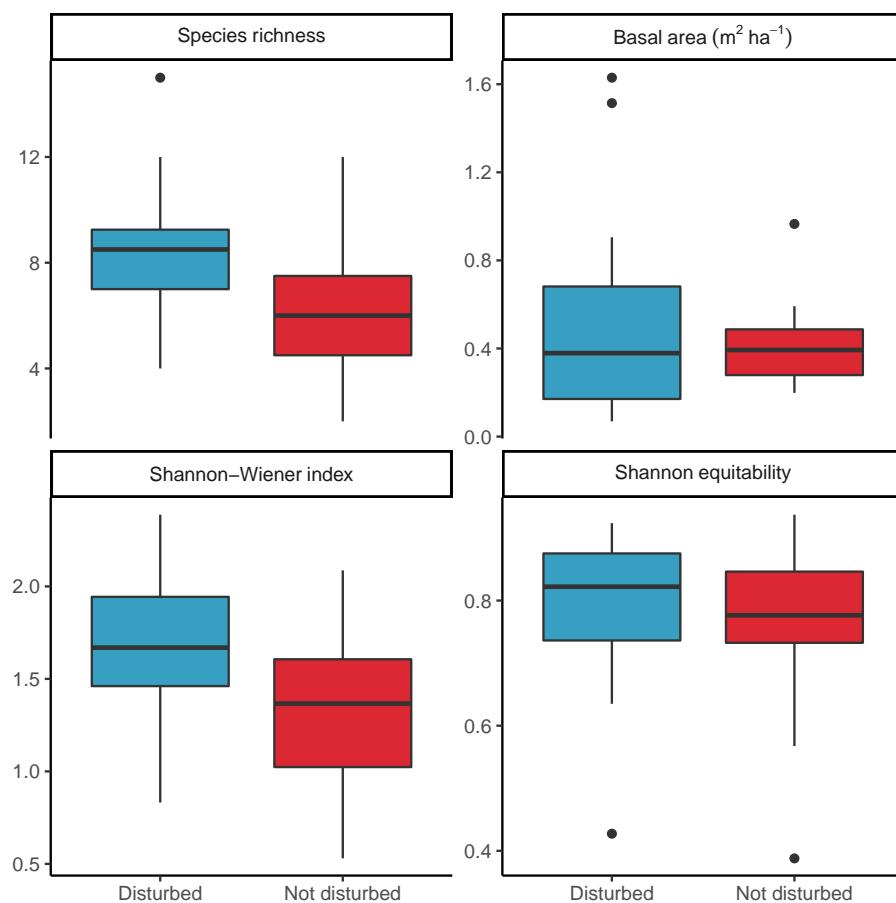
There was a clear difference in the species composition of previously farmed disturbed woodland plots and undisturbed woodland plots, but with some overlap (Figure 6). Notably, Plots 4 and 7 in

265 putatively undisturbed woodland have a species composition more resembling the disturbed plots.  
266 These two plots were dominated by *Brachystegia tamarindoides* and *Burkea africana*, with *B. africana* being  
267 a species which occurred frequently as a pioneer in the disturbed plots. The undisturbed plots 15, 13,  
268 and 9 represent distinct outliers in the NMDS. These three plots were dominated by *Baikiaea plurijuga*  
269 which was not encountered in the disturbed plots. The most common species in the disturbed plots  
270 was *Baphia massaiensis* ( $n = 158$ ), with a mean stem diameter of  $6.1 \pm 1.87$  cm, while in the undisturbed  
271 plots the most common species was *Julbernardia paniculata* ( $n = 125$ ), with a mean stem diameter of  
272  $11.8 \pm 7.24$  cm. Mean alpha diversity was marginally higher in disturbed plots ( $H' = 1.7 \pm 0.08$ ) than in  
273 undisturbed plots ( $H' = 1.3 \pm 0.14$ ) and an ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference in  
274  $H'$  between the two plot types ( $F(1,33) = 5.91$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) ([Figure 7](#), [Table 5](#)). Mean plot species richness  
275 was also lower in undisturbed plots ( $6.4 \pm 0.86$ ) than disturbed plots ( $8.7 \pm 0.53$ ). Mean  $E_{H'}$  was  $0.8 \pm 0$   
276 in disturbed plots and  $0.7 \pm 0.04$  in undisturbed plots but there was no significant difference between  
277 disturbed and undisturbed plots according to an ANOVA ( $F(1,33) = 1.54$ ,  $p = 0.22$ ). 11 species were  
278 found only in the disturbed plots and not in the undisturbed plots. The most common of these were  
279 *Combretum celastroides* ( $n = 30$ ), *Acacia reficiens* ( $n = 14$ ), and *Gardenia ternifolia* ( $n = 11$ ). 7 were found  
280 only in undisturbed plots, the most common being *Brachystegia spiciformis* ( $n = 61$ ), *Baikiaea plurijuga* ( $n$   
281 = 43) and *Combretum apiculatum* ( $n = 9$ ). Mean basal area was higher in undisturbed plots ( $0.5 \pm 0.07 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ )  
282 than disturbed plots ( $0.5 \pm 0.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ha}^{-1}$ ).

283 Mean stem density was higher in disturbed plots ( $900 \pm 338.36 \text{ stems ha}^{-1}$ ) than undisturbed plots  
284 ( $520.3 \pm 220.22 \text{ stems ha}^{-1}$ ). The stem diameter abundance distribution in disturbed plots showed  
285 that many more stems were from the 5-10 cm diameter class in disturbed plots, while the disturbed  
286 plots had fewer stems in the 10-20 cm size class. Both disturbed and undisturbed plots had a similar  
287 abundance of stems in larger stem diameter classes ([Figure 8](#)). Multi-stemmed trees in disturbed plots  
288 tended to have a greater number of stems per tree ( $3.4 \pm 2.35$ ) than multi-stemmed trees in undisturbed  
289 plots ( $2.4 \pm 0.8$ ).



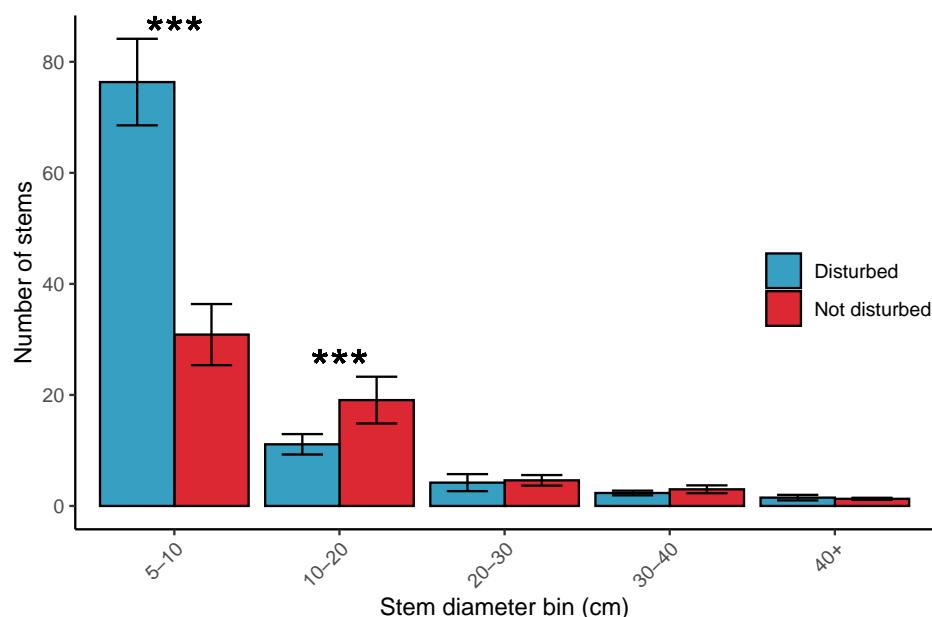
**Figure 6.** NMDS ordination of species composition of 20x50 m (0.1 ha) plots showing plot scores as coloured diamonds located in disturbed (blue) and undisturbed (red) areas of woodland in Bicuar National Park.



**Figure 7.** The variation in diversity and woodland structure between disturbed and undisturbed 20×50 m (0.1 ha) plots in Bicuar National Park. Boxes bound the 1st and 3rd quartiles, with the median within the box. Whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range plus or minus the 1st and 3rd quartiles, respectively. Values found beyond the whiskers are shown individually as points.

**Table 5.** Results of ANOVA tests for alpha diversity metrics and plot basal area, between disturbed and undisturbed plots in Bicuar National Park. Mean values for each group of plots with standard errors in parentheses are shown. Asterisks indicate the p-value of individual sites in each ANOVA (\*\*<0.001, \*\*<0.01, \*<0.05, .<0.1).

	Dependent variable:			
	Species richness	Basal area	Shannon ( $H'$ )	Shannon equit. ( $E_H$ )
Disturbed	2.450*** (0.859)	0.098 (0.122)	0.372** (0.140)	0.035 (0.045)
Constant	6.200*** (0.650)	0.416*** (0.092)	1.311*** (0.106)	0.756*** (0.034)
Observations	35	35	35	35
R <sup>2</sup>	0.198	0.019	0.176	0.018
Residual Std. Error (df = 33)	2.516	0.357	0.410	0.131
F Statistic (df = 1; 33)	8.126***	0.639	7.040**	0.617



**Figure 8.** Ranked variation between disturbed and undisturbed plots in stem number, with bars according to stem diameter class. Error bars are the mean  $\pm$  1 standard error. Asterisks above pairs of bars refer to the p-values of Poisson general linear models which tested whether disturbed and undisturbed plots differ in the number of stems for different stem diameter classes ( $^{***}<0.001$ ,  $^{**}<0.01$ ,  $^{*}<0.05$ ,  $.<0.1$ ).

#### 290 4. Discussion

##### 291 4.1. Comparison of Bicuar National Park with other woodlands across the miombo ecoregion

292 We compared the tree species diversity and woodland structure of arid woodlands in Bicuar  
 293 National Park in southwest Angola with three other woodland sites across the miombo ecoregion. Our  
 294 results show that Bicuar National Park is distinct in both woodland structure and species composition  
 295 from these other woodlands. Notably, plots in Bicuar National Park contained 27 tree species which did  
 296 not occur at other sites. This lends support for the Huíla Plateau as an important area for conservation  
 297 of southern African woodland landscapes. The woodlands in Bicuar National Park were of low tree  
 298 basal area, with few large trees except in plots dominated by *Baikiaea plurijuga*. Many other studies  
 299 have drawn a relationship between water availability and basal area [46,47], and our study supports  
 300 this, with Bicuar National Park being the most arid of the four sites considered in our study. The  
 301 NMDS of species composition also suggests that plots in Bicuar National Park are influenced by aridity.  
 302 While there are more arid woodlands within southern Africa, with Mopane woodlands for example  
 303 often being particularly dry, these plots in Bicuar National park represent particularly dry miombo  
 304 woodlands.

##### 305 4.2. Delineation of woodland types within Bicuar National Park

306 Within Bicuar National Park, three distinct woodland types were identified. The first, dominated  
 307 by *Baikiaea plurijuga* and *Baphia massaiensis* represents the Baikiaea woodland type commonly found  
 308 to the south of the miombo ecoregion [48]. This is supported by Chisingui *et al.* [23] who also found  
 309 Baikiaea woodlands as a distinct woodland type in the Park. *B. plurijuga* has been identified as an  
 310 important species for conservation, being attractive for selective logging due to its large stature [49,50].  
 311 The woodlands created by *B. plurijuga* are also an important habitat for elephants (*Loxodonta africana*)  
 312 [51,52], with Bicuar National Park and Mupa National Park being key refugia for this animal in the  
 313 Huíla plateau region. The second woodland type, dominated by *Brachystegia tamarindoides* and *Ochna*

314 *pulchra* represents a form of small stature woodland with a shrubby understorey and sparse canopy  
315 trees, which commonly occurs as a result of repeated disturbance by fire, or poor soil structure [53].  
316 The remaining plots resemble the more archetypical miombo woodland with *Julbernardia paniculata*,  
317 though with a number of species not seen in plots further to the east in the miombo ecoregion such as  
318 *Strychnos pungens*. This mosaic of woodland types makes Bicuar National Park a valuable reservoir of  
319 diversity and strengthens the case for the Park being a key conservation asset within the Huíla plateau  
320 and the larger southern African region. While there are regional boundaries between Baikiaeae and  
321 miombo woodlands [1], within Bicuar National Park it is likely that the mosaic of woodland types has  
322 been created by a combination of soil water capacity and disturbance history. Bicuar has a distinct  
323 landscape of wide shallow grassy valleys surrounded by woodland on higher ground (Figure 2). On  
324 some of these high points the soil is particularly sandy, resembling the Kalahari sand soils found  
325 further east and south [20], and these areas coincide with the presence of Baikiaeae woodlands [5].  
326 High levels of disturbance by fire in these Baikiaeae patches may additionally prevent a transition to an  
327 alternative woodland type via the control of sapling growth.

328 *4.3. Comparison of disturbed and undisturbed woodland plots*

329 Previously disturbed woodlands around the edge of Bicuar National Park were found to share  
330 many species with undisturbed plots in the Park, but with some additional species which did not  
331 occur in the undisturbed plots. They also lacked notable archetypical miombo species which tend to  
332 form larger canopy trees such as *Brachystegia spiciformis* and contained very few *Julbernardia paniculata*,  
333 leading to a distinct woodland composition. The species diversity of these disturbed patches was  
334 higher on average than was found in the undisturbed plots, a result which has been corroborated by  
335 other studies in miombo woodlands [54–56]. Other studies have shown a peak in species richness  
336 during woodland regrowth as pioneer species take advantage of a low competition environment, while  
337 some later stage woodland species remain as residuals that survived the original disturbance [30,57].  
338 Gonçalves *et al.* [30] particularly, notes the dominance of *Pericopsis angolensis* and *Combretum* spp. as  
339 light-demanding pioneer species, which were found to be abundant in the disturbed plots here. This  
340 suggests that reclamation of previously farmed and abandoned land for landscape conservation in this  
341 ecological context is a valuable management strategy.

342 In disturbed plots near the edge of the Park, there was a lack of species which tend to grow to  
343 large canopy trees, possibly due to them being repeatedly felled for timber prior to reclamation by the  
344 Park, or due to them being unable to recruit into a more open, shrubby woodland. Despite this lack of  
345 canopy forming tree species, some disturbed plots had a greater basal area than undisturbed plots,  
346 possibly due to high levels of coppicing in these plots or a divergent fire history. Indeed, mean stem  
347 density was higher in undisturbed plots. This can lead to species that would otherwise remain small  
348 producing a much larger basal area as they grow multiple stems under high disturbance conditions  
349 [58]. The most common species in the disturbed plots were *Combretum psidoides*, *Combretum collinum*  
350 and *Terminalia sericea*, members of the Combretaceae family, all of which more commonly remain as  
351 smaller multi-stemmed trees in disturbed woodlands, rather than growing to larger canopy trees [59].  
352 This result could be considered at odds with other studies which report lower woody biomass in plots  
353 that have experienced harvesting (e.g. Muvengwi *et al.* 60). It is important to consider however that  
354 our study took place in plots that were measured after farming had been abandoned for at least 7 years,  
355 with time for regeneration to occur. It is possible that over time tree basal area will decrease as coppiced  
356 shrubby trees are replaced by core miombo species in the transition back to miombo woodland [30].  
357 Indeed, other studies in miombo woodlands across the ecoregion have reported substantial recovery  
358 within seven years, with high levels of biomass accumulation in previously disturbed plots [30,61].  
359 Bicuar National Park offers a valuable case study to track woodland regeneration in real-time over the  
360 next decade in these previously farmed and now protected woodland plots, which could improve our  
361 understanding of this potential post-disturbance peak in basal area.

362 In conclusion, the woodlands of Bicuar National Park represent an important woodland refuge  
363 at the far western extent of the miombo ecoregion. These woodlands, both those disturbed by  
364 previous farming activity and those which remain undisturbed, possess a number of species not found  
365 commonly in other miombo woodland plots around the region. They may also house important genetic  
366 variation for widespread species, representing populations adapted to more arid conditions. Our study  
367 highlights the variation in species composition across the miombo ecoregion and underlines the need  
368 for studies which incorporate plot data from multiple locations to reach generalisable conclusions  
369 about the region as a whole. Additionally, the installation of 15 one hectare woodland monitoring  
370 plots and a further twenty 20x50 m plots in previously farmed and now protected land offer a valuable  
371 natural laboratory to further explore the dynamics of dry miombo woodlands of the Huíla plateau.  
372 Bicuar National Park should be considered a key conservation asset within the Huíla plateau and  
373 within the miombo ecoregion as a whole, as a successfully protected example of an arid woodland  
374 mosaic.

375 **Author Contributions:** Investigation and project administration was conducted by J.L.G., F.M.G., J.J.T. and A.V.T.  
376 (Bicuar National Park), C.M.R. (Tanzania, Mozambique), J.I.M. and M.N.S. (DRC). The study was conceived  
377 by J.L.G. and K.G.D.. Data curation, methodology, formal analysis and writing—original draft preparation was  
378 conducted by J.L.G.. All authors contributed to writing—review and editing.

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390 study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to  
391 publish the results.

## 392 Abbreviations

393 The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

394 ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
DD	Decimal Degrees
MAP	Mean Annual Precipitation
395 MAT	Mean Annual Temperature
MAT SD	Standard Deviation of Mean Annual Temperature (Seasonality)
NMDS	Non-metric Multidimensional Scaling
NP	National Park

### 396 Appendix A. Estimation of stem diameter at 1.3 m via tree taper

```

397
398 1 ##' @author Casey M. Ryan
399 2 ##' @return d130, the estimated diameter at a POM of 1.3 m (in cm).
400 3 ##' @param d_in the diameter measured at the POM (in cm)
401 4 ##' @param POM the height of the POM (in m)
402 5 ##' @details The adjustment based on tree taper model developed as part of
403 6 ##' the ACES project (Abrupt Changes in Ecosystem Services
404 7 ##' https://miomboaces.wordpress.com/), using data from the miombo of Niassa.
405 8 ##' The model is a cubic polynomial, with three equations for different sized stems.
406 9 ##' @section Warning: POMs >1.7 m are not adjusted.
407 10 POMadj <- function(d_in, POM) {
408 11   stopifnot(is.numeric(d_in),
409 12     is.numeric(POM),
410 13     POM >= 0,
411 14     sum(is.na(POM))==0,
412 15     length(POM) == length(d_in))
413 16   if (any(POM > 1.7))
414 17     warning("POMs >1.7 m are outside the calibration data, no correction applied")
415 18   NAS <- is.na(d_in)
416 19   d_in_clean <- d_in[!NAS]
417 20   POM_clean <- POM[!NAS]
418 21   # define the size class edges:
419 22   edges <- c(5.0, 15.8, 26.6, 37.4)
420 23   sm <- d_in_clean < edges[2]
421 24   med <- d_in_clean >= edges[2] & d_in_clean < edges[3]
422 25   lg <- d_in_clean >= edges[3]
423 26
424 27   # compute predictions for delta_d, for all size classes
425 28   delta_d <- data.frame(
426 29     # if small:
427 30     small = 3.4678+-5.2428 *
428 31       POM_clean + 2.9401 *
429 32       POM_clean^2+-0.7141 *
430 33       POM_clean^3,
431 34     # if med
432 35     med = 4.918+-8.819 *
433 36       POM_clean + 6.367 *
434 37       POM_clean^2+-1.871 *
435 38       POM_clean^3,
436 39     # if large
437 40     large = 9.474+-18.257 *
438 41       POM_clean + 12.873 *
439 42       POM_clean^2+-3.325 *
440 43       POM_clean^3
441 44   )
442 45   # index into the right size class
443 46   dd <- NA_real_
444 47   dd[sm] <- delta_d$small[sm]
445 48   dd[med] <- delta_d$med[med]
446 49   dd[lg] <- delta_d$large[lg]
447 50   dd[POM_clean > 1.7] <- 0 # to avoid extrapolation mess
448 51
449 52   # add NAs back in
450 53   d130 <- NA
451 54   d130[NAS] <- NA
452 55   d130[!NAS] <- d_in_clean - dd
453 56
454 57   if (any(d130[!NAS] < 0))
455 58     warning("Negative d130 estimated, replaced with NA")
456 59   d130[d130 <= 0 & !is.na(d130)] <- NA
457 60   return(d130)
458 61 }
```

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