

Life after fire - Long-term responses of 20 timber species in semi-deciduous forests of West Africa

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² semi-deciduous forests of West Africa

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16 Abstract

17 Understanding the response of commercial timber species to fire is fundamental to designing sustainable forest management

18 strategies in West Africa. In this area of high deforestation for agriculture, semi-deciduous tropical forests have been reduced

to a trickle in 50 years and are now subject not only to logging but also to increasingly frequent fires. This paper aims to study

the long-term (37 years) demographic and growth responses of 20 timber species after a spatially heterogeneous fire in a West

African semi-deciduous forest. We (i) inventoried, in 2020, 100 hectares of plots already established before the 1983 fire, (ii) built demographic and growth models, in a Bayesian framework, to estimate the vulnerability to fire of each species and (iii)

²³ linked this vulnerability to functional traits: wood density (WD) and bark thickness (BT). Our results show that most species

have lower current abundances but higher growths in burnt areas than in fire-preserved areas. We identified three categories of

vulnerability to fire: 1 non-vulnerable species, 16 species with vulnerable demography, and 3 highly vulnerable species. Species

²⁶ with high wood density or thin bark show higher demographic vulnerability to fire. Our results show that fire management

²⁷ is a top priority in West African semi-deciduous forests to maintain long-term populations of timber species and ultimately

the forest industry. The differences in vulnerability observed, and the strong predictive power of the functional traits studied,

29 should make it possible to (i) better define harvesting rates and adapt them to fire risk and (ii) better select commercial species

³⁰ to be promoted for reforestation or natural (assisted) regeneration.

31 Keywords: West Africa, fire, timberwood, wood density, bark thickness, semi-deciduous forest, vulnerability, bayesian modeling

Introduction 32

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Tropical forests have a rich flora characterized by many commercial timber species with diverse and desirable 33 timber properties. The economic value of these woods, in conjunction with an ever-increasing demand, has 34 sometimes led foresters to overexploit this resource (Grogan et al., 2010) to the point of degrading the forests 35 that harbor them (Hirschmugl et al., 2014). It is therefore necessary to consider promoting good management 36 practices to ensure the sustainability of the economic resource, and that of the timber industry (Siry et al., 37 2005). Moreover, sustainable management of tropical timber resources must now be articulated with other 38 challenges that forest managers face in the context of global change: extreme weather events, recurrent 39 fires, biological invasions to name but a few (Barlow et al., 2016). In particular, with climate change and 40 increasing forest degradation, the frequency and intensity of forest fires has increased dramatically in recent decades (Roux et al., 2022). Fire leads to rapid degradation of forest condition, with a positive feedback 42 loop, related to the presence of large amounts of dead wood after fire, leading to more intense fires (Silvestrini 43 et al., 2011), reduced potential for recovery of mature individual trees (Kinnaird and O'Brien, 1998) and 44 irreparable loss of some valuable timber species (Slik et al., 2002). 45 In West Africa, the prevalence of forest fires is well documented (Dwomoh et al., 2019; Dwomoh and Wim-46 berly, 2017; Swaine, 1992). Some estimates report a 90% degradation of natural forests, mainly due to the 47 populations who practice, for the most part, slash-and-burn agriculture (Brandt et al., 2017). In particular, 48 in semi-deciduous forests, intermediate forests between the evergreen forests bordering the Gulf of Guinea in ٨q the South and the dry forests bordering the Sahelian belt in the North, the seasonal loss of the leaves seems 50 to be a natural factor capable of increasing their flammability in the dry season (Borchert et al., 2002). In 51 Côte d'Ivoire, these forests constitute a large proportion of the forest areas (Aubr´eville, 1949) and an im-52 portant timber resource, with a density of commercial timber trees of about 10 trees per hectare (Pirard et 53 al., 2021). The prevalence of fire in West African semi-deciduous forests reduces the overall timber resource, 54

which is already greatly reduced by the high level of deforestation (Barnes, 1990). Fire is therefore a major 55 oncern for forest managers in this semi-deciduous zone. Paradoxically, very little information is available

on the response to fire of timber species in West African semi-deciduous forests. 57

Tropical forest dynamic depends mainly on (i) edaphic and climatic factors (Quesda et al., 2012) and (ii) 58 human and natural disturbance (Herault and Piponiot, 2018). In particular, fire has a strong demographic impact on forest species with a change in (i) not only the abundance of populations but also (ii) the per-60 formance of surviving individuals (Murphy and Bowman, 2012). (i) Fire can destroy or damage all vital 61 organs, from roots to foliage, resulting in a rapid increase in mortality (Chazdon, 2003), which can range 62 from 25% to 80% of individuals per species within a semi-deciduous forest in West Africa (Bertault, 1992). (ii) Surviving trees may show reduced growth because of fire-induced foliage loss and injuries to vascular

tissues (Battipaglia, 2014). A decrease in reproductive functions in trees after fire events may also be observed (Hoffmann, 1998). On the other hand, fire can also have strong indirect impacts on the ecosystem composition and functioning, by creating large open spaces in forest canopy. Remaining trees may benefit from reduced competition for water, nutrients, and light. However, light-demanding pioneer species could be greatly favoured during post-fire generation, leading to an increase in competition that may be detrimental to the growth of surviving trees (Flores et al., 2011).

Survival, regeneration and growth of surviving trees after fire vary greatly between species. This variability 71 in response is a function of, among other things, quantifiable characteristics, called functional traits, which 72 can modulate the effect of fire on the demographic response of species. In particular, wood density and 73 bark thickness have previously been identified as important functional traits in explaining differential tree 74 mortality after fire (Brando et al., 2012). Bark thickness reduces heat transfer, acting as a shield against 75 overheating (Pausas, 2015) and thus reducing tissue damage (Staver et al., 2019; Midgley et al., 2011). 76 Other bark traits such as bark density and moisture content can also explain some variation in heat transfer, 77 and thus affect post-fire tree mortality (Bauer et al., 2010). In contrast, the role of wood density on tree 78 survival after fire is less well understood (Osazuwa-Peters et al., 2017), but has been hypothesized to be 79 related to the rapid containment of fire-induced necrosis in species with higher wood density (Romero and 80 Bolker, 2008). In addition, wood density plays an important role in many plant functions, *i.e.* investment 81 in woody tissues, metabolic rates, mechanical support, water transport, etc... (Chave et al., 2009), and thus 82 could be an indicator of plant life strategies that have different responses to fire damage (Paine et al., 2010). 83 Investigating, or confirming, the links between functional traits and the responses of timber tree species to 84 fire is therefore a major research priority for the semi-deciduous forests of West Africa. Doing so, functional raits may constitute proxies that make it possible to define which species to promote, or not, without having 86 to wait decades to understand the long-term response of the dozens of commercial timber species of interest 87 to bushfire. 88

In this work, we analysed the (i) demographic and (ii) growth responses after fire for 20 commercial timber species from the T'en'e experimental site, a semi-deciduous forest in Côte d'Ivoire. The interest of this site lies in the fact that, after having undergone silvicultural operations, it was traversed by a high intensity fire in 1983 (3 days on site). Data were collected in 2020 on 9081 individual trees whose species contained at least 8 individuals surviving the fire. Based on demographic and growth models, we estimated the vulnerability of each of these 20 commercial timber species. We then related this vulnerability to two functional traits often used as proxies in the literature, namely wood density and bark thickness. Specifically, we asked the following questions:

• What is the long-term demographic response of the 20 timber species studied?

- What is the long-term growth response of individuals that survived fire?
- Are wood density and bark thickness good indicators of the vulnerability of timber species to fire in the semi-deciduous forests of West Africa?

¹⁰¹ In conclusion, we will draw the consequences of our results for the management of semi-deciduous tropical ¹⁰² forests in West Africa, in the context of a general increase in the frequency of bush fires.

Materials and Methods

104 Study Site

The study was conducted in the state forest of T´en´e (6 ° 31'14 "N, 5 ° 28'44"W) located in Côte d'Ivoire. T´en´e is a semi-deciduous tropical forest of the Sudano-Guinean domain (Aubr´eville, 1949). The climate is sub-equatorial, characterised by low amplitudes of monthly averaged temperatures ranging from 25°C to 30°C and rainfall varies considerably from month to month (Appendix). This zone has two dry seasons (December - February and July - August) and two wet seasons (March - June and September - November). The average annual temperature is 26.6°C. The relief of the T´en´e is made up of granitic plateaus at an altitude of between 260 and 320 m. The soils are ferralitic (more or less desaturated) or hydromorphic with pseudogley species (Bertault, 1992).

The T'en'e experiment was set up in 1978, covering 400 ha of natural forest divided into 25 plots of 16 ha 113 each (4 ha of inventoried area and 12 hectares of buffer zone around, silvicultural treatments applied over the 114 entire plot, *i.e.* inventoried + buffer areas). The first objective of the experiment was to study the effects of 115 forestry on stand dynamics. To do this, among the 25 plots, 10 were logged, 5 thinned and 10 were conserved 116 as control plots (Table 1). The felling of trees was carried out on the basis of the diameter threshold values 117 authorized in Côte d'Ivoire. These differ from one species to another. And, the tree felling process within a 118 plot was stopped once the desired logging intensity was reached. Then, all the logged trees were removed in 119 a way that minimized the damage caused to the forest. The thinning was carried out by a chemical method 120 using an arboricide. Once the arboricide was sprayed into notches made in the trees to be killed, they were 121 left in the plots until they died and decayed by gradually breaking down. 122

123

In the long dry season of 1983 (Appendix), a forest fire burnt the experiment for several days. The burnt surfaces varied from 12 to 87%, with on average 54% of individual tree mortality (Bertault, 1992). This variability depends on the forestry treatment. On average, the fire was twice more extensive in thinned plots (63%) and logged plots (57%) than in control plots (29%) (Table 1).In control plots, the fire was shorter (ground layer fire) while the fire lasted several days in logged or thinned plots (high flame fire). This is related to the presence of more dead wood from devitalization (thinned plots), and of logging debris (logged

plots). Several other small fires occurred in the area over the next 37 years. During all these years, the
vigilance of the forestry agents has prevented these fires from reaching the T'en'e plots, except for the one in
2016, 33 years later. This one had slight sparse damage in the undergrowth and was of incomparably low
intensity in comparison to that of 1983.

135 Data collection

The data were collected in 1978, *i.e.* before the logging interventions and in 2020, 37 years later. All timber trees with diameter at breast height (DBH) \geq 10 cm were mapped and their diameters were measured with a forestry tape. In our study, we focused on the 20 commercial timber species that had at least 8 individuals.ha⁻¹ three years after the major fire of 1983 (Table 2).

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141 Response variables

- *N*: the number of trees of a given commercial timber species per hectare (Individuals. ha⁻¹) in 2020.
- *AGR:* the absolute diameter growth rate (mm.year-1) at breast height of the 662 trees surviving the
- ¹⁴⁴ 1983 fire and that could be retrieved from the plots in 2020 (Table 2).

145 Covariates

- *Fire*: The percentage of the plot surface that was burnt in 1983. This percentage was computed from
 the 1983 field maps of burnt areas (Bertault, 1992).
- Disturb: An estimate of the disturbance induced by the pre-fire sylvicultural treatment estimated as
 the percentage of removed basal area either by logging or by thinning (H´erault and Piponiot, 2018).
- InitDens: The 1978 (pre-logging, pre-thinning and pre-fire) initial density of the studied commercial
- timber species (Bertault, 1992). The purpose of this variable is to control for differences in initial den-
- sities of the number of individuals per species between plots due to differences in the local environment
- (soil, topography) and/or to an aggregated distribution due to limited dispersion.

¹⁵⁴ All covariates were centered and scaled before being included in the data analyses.

155 Functional Traits

- Wood density (WD) was computed with the BIOMASS package (R´ejou-M´echain et al., 2017).
 Species-level means were assigned using the Global Wood Density database as retrieved in the package.
- **Bark thickness** (BT) was measured from bark samples taken in the field. To this end, we first
- randomly selected between 3 and 5 adult trees per species (DBH > 30 cm). Then, we collected at
- ¹⁶⁰ breast height and measured the bark thickness from 3 pieces (4*4cm square which does not depend on
- cracks or splits) per tree with a caliper. Finally, we calculated the average of measures per species. All

Data analysis

162

164 Demographic response

¹⁶⁵ In order to predict the long-term demographic response, we designed a model in which the density of trees ¹⁶⁶ N of a timber species s in a plot p follows a Poisson probability distribution:

167 $N_{s,p} \sim P(\lambda_{s,p})$

where $N_{s,p}$ is the observed tree density (tree.ha⁻¹) in 2020 and $\lambda_{s,p}$, the parameter of the Poisson distribution

for species *s* in plot *p*. Because $\lambda_{s,p}$ are defined on \mathbf{R}^+ , we introduced the studied covariates in the model through an exponential function:

171 $\lambda_{s,p} = \exp(\beta_{0,s} + \beta_{fir,s}.Fire_p + \beta_{trt,s}.Disturb_p + \beta_{id,s}.InitDens_{s,p})$

172 with

- ¹⁷³ $\beta_{0,s} \sim log N(log(\beta_0), \sigma_{\beta_0})$
- 174 $\beta_{fir,s} \sim N \beta_{fir}, \sigma_{\beta_{fir}}$
- 175 $\beta_{trt,s} \sim N(\beta_{trt}, \sigma_{\beta_{trt}})$
- 176 $\beta_{id,s} \sim N(\beta_{id}, \sigma_{\beta_{id}})$

where $\beta_{0,s}$ are species-specific parameters denoting demographic performance (*i.e* the value that controls the Poisson distribution when covariates are equal to zero) that follow a lognormal distribution given that they are defined on \mathbf{R}^+ . $\beta_{fir,s}$ and $\beta_{trt,s}$ are respectively the species responses to the fire and disturbance intensities and $\beta_{id,s}$ the species-specific tree density before the fire.

181 Growth response

¹⁸² In order to predict the absolute growth rate (AGR), we parameterized an existing ontogenic growth ¹⁸³ model (H´erault et al., 2011). We infered AGR within a lognormal law because AGR is always positive:

 $^{184} AGR_{i,s,p} \sim log N \cdot log \cdot (\theta_{0,s} + \theta_{fir,s}.Fire_p + \theta_{trt,s}.Disturb_p) \cdot exp \cdot \left(\frac{-\frac{\log - \frac{DBH^i}{\theta_{dbh}.DBH_s}}{\theta_{wd}.WD_s}}{\theta_{wd}.WD_s}\right)^2 \cdot \cdot ; \sigma^2 \cdot$

185 with

- 186 $\theta_{0,s} \sim log N(log(\theta_0), \sigma_{\theta_0})$
- 187 $\theta_{fir,s} \sim N \ \theta_{fir}, \sigma_{\theta_{fir}}$
- 188 $\theta_{trt,s} \sim N(\theta_{trt}, \sigma_{\theta_{trt}})$

where $AGR_{i,s,p}$ was the annual absolute growth rate of an individual tree *i* from a species *s* in plot *p* and $\theta_{o,s}$ are the species-specific maximum growth values (*i.e* when covariates are equal to zero) that follow a lognormal distribution given that they are defined on **R**⁺. $\theta_{fir,s}$ and $\theta_{trt,s}$ are the species-specific parameters associated, respectively, with the effects of the fire and the disturbance intensities. θ_{dbh} and θ_{wd} are the model parameters that multiply, respectively, the 95th percentile of the species DBH distribution *DBH*⁹⁵and the wood density *WD* in order to predict, respectively, the diameter at maximum growth and the kurtosis of the growth model (H' erault et al., 2011).

196 Assessing Vulnerability

- ¹⁹⁷ We defined the vulnerability of a given species as the opposite of their responses to fire ($-\beta_{fir,s}$ or $-\theta_{fir,s}$).
- ¹⁹⁸ Thus, if the response is positive, then the species is non-vulnerable, and if the response is negative, then the
- ¹⁹⁹ species is vulnerable. We classified the timber species according to their long-term demographic and growth
- 200 responses to fire :
- Non-vulnerable : $\beta_{fir,s}$ and $\theta_{fir,s} \ge 0$
- Vulnerable Demography : $\beta_{fir,s} < 0$ and $\theta_{fir,s} \ge 0$
- Vulnerable Growth : $\beta_{fir,s} \ge 0$ and $\theta_{fir,s} < 0$
- Highly-vulnerable : $\beta_{fir,s}$ and $\theta_{fir,s} < 0$

²⁰⁵ Using wood density and bark thickness as vulnerability proxy

To assess whether species vulnerability can be predicted from the functional traits of wood density and bark
 thickness, we assumed a linear relationship between vulnerability and trait values. The predictive quality
 has been estimated using the coefficient of determination and the value of the slope of the linear regression.

Results

Demographic response

Fire and silvicultural treatments affect the demography of most species (Table 3). The effects of fire on demography show 19 species with negative responses ($\beta_{fir,s} < 0$) with most of them significantly affected. There is only one positive response, Eho *Ricinodendron heudelotii*, but the value is very close to zero. In terms of response to disturbance, there are 14 species with negative response ($\beta_{trt,s} < 0$) and 6 species with positive response ($\beta_{trt,s} > 0$). All in all, the demographic responses to fire are much more pronounced (14 species with $|\beta_{fir,s}| > 0.1$) than the responses to the disturbance (1 species only with $|\beta_{trt,s}| > 0.1$).

218 Growth response

Out of 20, 17 species have positive responses to fire ($\theta_{fir,s} > 0$) while 3 only showed negative responses ($\theta_{fir,s} < 0$). However, these three species (Kotibe *Nesogordonia papavifera*, Asan *Celtis zenkeri*, Sapelli *Entandrophragma cylindricum*) have extremely negative parameter values ($\theta_{fir,s} < -0.25$), *i.e.* their growths are highly affected by fire. In terms of silvicultural treatment, there were 6 species with negative responses ($\theta_{trt,s} < 0$) and 14 species with a positive responses ($\theta_{trt,s} > 0$). All in all, the growth responses to fire are more pronounced (16 species with) $\theta_{fir,s} > 0.1$) than the responses to the disturbance (8 species only with $|\theta_{trt,s}| > 0.1$).

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227 Vulnerability assessment

²²⁸ The 20 investigated into 3 categories of vulnerability (Figure 1):

- 1 non-vulnerable species
- 16 species that have a vulnerable demography
- 3 species that are highly-vulnerable

²³² The only non-vulnerable species corresponds to a demographic response to fire very close to zero. Among

²³³ the highly-vulnerable species, Asan (*Celtis zenkeri*) has the highest demographic vulnerability while Kotibe

²³⁴ (Nesogordonia papavifera) has the highest growth vulnerability. Remarkably enough, no species falls into

235 the "Vulnerable Growth" group.

²³⁶ Functional traits and vulnerability to fire

In our study, wood density and bark thickness are relatively well linked to demography and growth vulner ability (figure 2):

- A positive link between wood density and species vulnerability to fire
- A negative link between bark thickness and species vulnerability to fire

More specifically, we found that wood density and bark thickness were significantly associated with demographic vulnerability (i.e. the change in species abundances after fire) but not significantly with species' growth vulnerability to fire (Figure 2). In other words, post-fire species abundance increased in species with lower wood density and thicker bark.

217

245 Discussion

Overall, our results show that fire causes more damage to long-term demography than to the growth of 246 the commercial timber species studied (Table 3). Surprisingly, it appears that the presence of fire boosted 247 the growth of surviving individuals. This means that the ecological conditions, in the broad biotic and 248 abiotic sense, of the site were certainly modified sufficiently to prevent the recruitment of the timber species 249 impacted by fire (Cochrane, 2003). These changes may involve soils (Stoof et al., 2010), fauna (Haslem et 250 al., 2010) or microclimate (Didham and Lawton, 1999). Our classification of species into three vulnerability 251 groups showed that, in the end, only one species out of 20 was not vulnerable and that the overwhelming 252 majority of species are demographically vulnerable. This demographic vulnerability (i.e., change in number 253 of trees after fire) was significantly correlated with both wood density and bark thickness. This demonstrates 254 that these two functional traits can be useful proxies for predicting how timber species will respond to fire. 255 We focused in this study on the fire long term impacts, but species vulnerability to drought and insect pests 256 could also explain the observed differences in the long-term responses of trees. We were not able to investigate 257 these effects, since annual tree growth surveys and insect damage monitoring are lacking. However, as the 258 1983 forest fire was unusually extensive and devastating (more than 16.000 hectares burnt in the department 259 where the T'en'e forest is located, Bertault 1992), we might expect that it was the main factor impacting 260 demography and growth in the study period. 261

²⁶² A high demographic vulnerability of timber species to fire

The reasons for the overall high demographic vulnerability of species to fire are multiple. However, our field observations and results suggest that these negative responses are related to two key steps in the demographic dynamics of forest stands: (i) death of surviving trees over time, and (ii) limited regeneration of the targeted timber species.

First, fire-induced mortality effectively reduced species abundance after the fire. Three years after the fire and on the same system, immediate mortality ranged from 25% to 80% depending on the species (Bertault, 1992). Fire can also have long-lasting effects, causing long-term mortality that would not be observed in the first few years after the fire. Indeed, the reduction in species abundance may preferentially expose remaining isolated trees because these trees are the last sources of food for insects and other primary consumers (Engstrom, 2010). Furthermore, when fire weakens the defense and nutritional systems of trees, they become highly vulnerable to these same insects and other pathogens (van Lierop et al., 2015).

Second, with respect to limiting species regeneration, it should first be noted that the immediate ability of
species to regenerate (regardless of resprouting) is first related to the quality of the seed bank (H´erault and

²⁷⁶ Hiernaux, 2004), which has possibly been greatly affected by fire. If the seed bank is failing, then this regen-

eration depends on the number of seeds produced by surviving trees, their dispersal and germination (Keeley 277 and Fotheringham, 2000). In the semi-deciduous zone of West Africa, it has already been shown that, after 278 agriculture, species regeneration is related to the number of remnant trees (Doua-Bi et al., 2021). How-279 ever, this important role of remnant trees in post-cultivation successions (N'Guessan et al., 2019; Amani et 280 al., 2021; Amani et al., 2022) may be hampered in our situation by the very specific effects of fire on the 281 ecosystem. Indeed, it is quite possible that fruiting and flowering of tropical trees in the vicinity of burned 282 areas may be reduced due to the stress experienced by surviving trees (Kinnaird and O'Brien, 1998). On 283 the other hand, one of the barriers to regeneration could be the high sunlight entry into the understory that 284 favored the rapid recolonization of burned areas by Marantaceae and Zingiberaceae plants which prevent the 285 regeneration of forest species because of their important root mat (Swaine, 1992). 286

Finally, the presence of *Ricinodendron heudelotii* (Eho) among the non-vulnerable species shows, nevertheless, that post-fire conditions may be appropriate for the demographic development of some timber species.
This could be because Eho is a pioneer species whose seedlings require light to develop (Amissah, 2014).

²⁹⁰ Overall a positive growth response of timber species to fire

Overall, the growth response for 17 of the 20 species studied showed that fire improved their diametric increase (Fig 1). This gain is of interest as these timber species are of significant economic interest in West Africa (Lewis, 2005). However, in order to assess the combined effect of demographic losses and individual growth gain on overall forest production, it would be necessary in future work to combine the two effects in a forest simulator to make an integrated assessment (Aubry-Kientz et al., 2015; Aubry-Kientz et al., 2019).

The effects of fire on tropical tree growth can vary depending on the forest type and the fire regime, i.e. its seasonality, return frequency and intensity (Staal et al., 2018). The reasons for the overall growth gain in our case are likely to be twofold:

- By causing significant mortality on the site, the 1983 fire greatly reduced competition, which may have
 increased the long-term growth of surviving trees in the same way that forest thinnings improve growth
- ³⁰¹ through increased availability of light, water and nutrients (Herault et al., 2010).
- Fire acts as a rapid mineralisation agent that releases nutrients instantly, unlike natural decomposition
- ³⁰³ processes that can take decades (H´erault et al., 2010). This ultra-fast mineralisation provides surviving
- trees with essential nutrients (Grau et al., 2017; Urbina et al., 2021) that are easily absorbed by their
- ³⁰⁵ roots (Bauters et al., 2022) and boost their growth for several years (Soong et al., 2020).

Fire can also limit the growth of trees of 3 species (see Fig 1), and this has to be related to the autoecology of
these species. Indeed, in forests of the semi-deciduous zone of West Africa, savannah and humid forest species
can coexist. It is common for savannah species, due to their long coevolution with fire, to have a productivity

favoured by fire (Werner, 2005) whereas tree growth is reduced by fire for rainforest species (Murphy et al., 2010). This is typically the case for our 3 vulnerable species (*i.e.* kotibe, asan, sapelli, see Fig 1) which are at their distribution margins in the semi-deciduous forest and which are otherwise very abundant in the Central African rainforests. For these species, high-intensity fires could slow growth by keeping the tree in a shrubby state and contributing to stem deformation as well as by changing the relative allocation of growth from the stem to other organs such as roots, leaves and the defence system (N'Dri et al., 2012; N'Dri et al., 2013).

³¹⁶ Use of wood density and bark thickness as proxies for the long-term species ³¹⁷ responses to fire

Wood density and bark thickness have shown good predictive abilities for long-term demographic responses but quite poor predictive power for growth response (Fig 2). Although wood density and bark thickness could be interesting proxies to predict the effect of fire on species abundance, we were only able to explain a portion of the variance observed in these responses. Furthermore, at the tree level, there is a great deal of intraspecific variability in these trait values (Siefert et al., 2015), which may also explain the variability in observed responses.

Wood density is commonly used as a key functional trait that is related to many metabolic and demographic 324 processes, including tree growth (H´erault et al., 2011; Mirabel et al., 2020; Mirabel et al., 2021), mortality 325 (Aubry-Kientz et al., 2013), metabolic maintenance (Larjavaara and Muller-Landau, 2010) and resistance 326 to disturbances such as drought and fire (Brando et al., 2012). In this study, wood density had no significant 327 effect on species growth vulnerability to fire, but species with higher wood density had smaller increases in 328 abundance after fire. This might seem to contradict previous results showing that species with higher wood 329 density generally have lower mortality rates after fire (Brando et al., 2012). However, changes in post-fire 330 species abundance are the result not only of tree survival in the fire, but also of recruitment of new individuals. 331 Higher post-fire abundances of low-density species could therefore be explained by high recruitment rates 332 of pioneer species at low wood densities. Unfortunately, our data do not distinguish between the effects of 333

³³⁴ recruitment and survival on species abundance.

Bark is a very important tree functional trait in the West African context as it protects the trees from many external stresses (Amahowe et al., 2018). In terms of demographic vulnerability, the negative relationship between bark thickness and vulnerability is very consistent with the behaviour of thick-barked species in neotropical forests which are less affected by fire than thin-barked species (Brando et al., 2012). Bark thickness can therefore be used as a proxy of the long-term demographic vulnerability in West Africa. In addition, it is sometimes argued that bark thickness is also strongly related to tree growth after fire, by keeping the vascular cambium in optimal conditions for xylem production (Paine et al., 2010). However, when the link between growth and bark thickness is specifically looked at, it is much less clear or even non-existent (Wagner et al., 2014). Our results therefore tend to confirm that bark protects the tree at the time of fire occurrence, preventing death, but has little influence on the post-fire growth of these survivors.

³⁴⁵ Implications for sustainable forest management

From our work, most timber species are vulnerable from a demographic point of view (Fig. 2) so that only very long (more than a century) recovery periods between fires would be able to reconstitute exploitable stocks. In a context where fire frequency will increase in relation to ongoing climate change and the increasing population, it is less and less likely that these recovery periods necessary can be respected and this clearly poses a problem of sustainability of the resource. The problem needs to be addressed respectively at the level of (i) fire management in forest areas and (ii) conservation of commercial timber species.

The fire management strategy must first consist of raising awareness among the population on how to control their use of fire for agriculture and hunting. For example, it has been shown that the use of early (not late) fires, lit just before the start of the dry season to clear the undergrowth of combustible biomass, can limit their impacts on standing tree stands (Dereix and N'Guessan, 1976). Secondly, in order to reduce the accumulation of flammable material in the forest (Cardil et al., 2020), woody debris resulting from natural thinning or silvicultural activities should be valorised.

• As the demography of the studied species is strongly affected by fire, more intensive monitoring of the 358 condition of the stands after a fire should be carried out and management plans should be adapted 359 immediately. In particular, the exploitation of the most vulnerable species (Kotibe, Sapelli and Asan) 360 should be avoided in forests that have suffered fires in recent decades. In critical situations, this 361 could lead to more interventionist approaches by carrying out reforestation campaigns using native 362 species (H'erault et al., 2020) or by putting in place means to protect natural regeneration (Doua-Bi 363 et al., 2021). The species promoted will be chosen according to their susceptibility to resist/ benefit 364 from fire in order to increase the success rate in the very long term. 365

West Africa is in the midst of a major transformation from a predominantly forested to a predominantly agricultural landscape in 50 years (Norris et al., 2010). In this context, a major issue is and will be the management of fires and burnt forest areas. One might have thought, *a priori*, that the long coevolution between fires and semi-deciduous forests would have made most species resilient. Our results show that this is not the case; the recovery of commercial timber tree populations after fire takes decades so that dedicated management measures are urgently needed for semi-deciduous forests. The survival in the wild of many species typical of this area is clearly at stake.

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602 Tables

Plot Number	Treatment	% Basal Area Removed	% Surface Burnt
1	thinning	29	64
2	control	0	31
3	control	0	39
4	logging	16	66
5	control	0	32
6	logging	27	47
7	logging	21	52
8	control	0	13
9	thinning	35	62
10	logging	29	73
11	thinning	29	85
12	logging	16	41
13	control	0	31
14	control	0	34
15	control	0	46
16	logging	26	73
17	control	0	37
18	logging	43	35
19	thinning	36	52
20	logging	43	87
21	logging	31	19
22	logging	27	74
23	control	0	12
24	thinning	32	50
25	control	0	13

Table 1: List of sampled plots with the forestry treatment type, the percentage of basal area removed by the forestry treatment and the percentage of burnt area.

Table 2: List of the studied timber species with Commercial Names in french, N ₂₀ the total number of individuals in the site in 2020, DBH ₂₀
the tree diameter range (minimum - maximum), WD the wood density [minimum - maximum], BT the bark thickness and AGR the average
growth rate by species.

Family	Species	Commercial name	N_{20}	DBH_{20} (cm)	WD (g/cm ³)	BT (mm)	AGR (mm/yr)
Anacardiaceae	Anacardiaceae Lannea welwitschii		432	15 - 150	0.40 [0.33-0.47]	7.30	4.50
Apocynaceae	Alstonia boonei	Emien	66	22 - 150	0.32 [0.25-0.39]	5.46	3.38
Bombacaceae	Ceiba pentandra	Fromager	1006	20 - 140	0.30 [0.23-0.37]	21.03	10.63
Caesalpiniaceae	Guibourtia ehie	Amazakou´e	42	16 - 65	0.71 [0.64-0.78]	8.50	4.35
Euphorbiaceae	Ricinodendron heudelotii	Eho	944	17 - 154	0.21 [0.14-0.28]	8.26	7.39
Flacourtiaceae	Scottellia coriacea	Akossika	100	15 - 90	0.56 [0.47-0.65]	5.60	1.95
Meliaceae	Entandrophragma cylindricum	Sapelli	86	14 - 90	0.57 [0.50-0.64]	5.73	2.68
Moraceae	Morus mesozygia	Difou	62	11 - 58	0.72 [0.65-0.79]	4.72	1.59
Sapotaceae	Aningeria altissima	Aniegr´e blanc	48	18 - 111	0.51 [0.31-0.71]	6.25	2.59
Sapotaceae	Gambeya africana	Akatio	142	15 - 90	0.52 [0.38-0.66]	4.68	3.63
Sterculiaceae	Eribroma oblogum	Bi	446	18 - 65	0.64 [0.57-0.71]	9.90	3.11
Sterculiaceae	Mansonia altissima	Bete	1074	29 - 70	0.56 [0.49-0.63]	12.97	2.57
Sterculiaceae	Nesogordonia papaverifera	Kotibe	1049	15 - 250	0.64 [0.57-0.71]	5.43	2.38
Sterculiaceae	Pterygota macrocarpa	Koto	280	25 - 110	0.49 [0.42-0.56]	12.45	4.28
Sterculiaceae	Sterculia rhinopetala	Lotofa	616	12 - 90	0.67 [0.60-0.74]	11.98	2.91
Sterculiaceae	Triplochiton scleroxylon	Samba	1076	23 - 110	0.33 [0.26-0.40]	8.12	6.22
Ulmaceae	Celtis mildbraedii	Ba	860	11 - 116	0.62 [0.55-0.69]	3.89	2.25
Ulmaceae	Celtis zenkeri	Asan	523	18 - 105	0.61 [0.54-0.68]	4.98	3.19
Ulmaceae	Holoptelea grandis	Kekele	149	20 - 110	0.59 [0.52-0.66]	5.08	8.33
Ulmaceae	Celtis aldofi-friderici	Lohonf´e	80	23 - 86	0.57 [0.48-0.66]	10.69	4.34

Table 3: Species-specific responses to fire and disturbance. Values are the posterior mean of a given parameter. $\beta_{fir,s}$ is the species demographic response to fire, $\beta_{trt,s}$ the species demographic response to silvicultural treatments, $\theta_{fir,s}$ is the species growth response to fire and $\theta_{trt,s}$ the species growth response to silvicultural treatments. Values with a * are significantly different from 0 (P < 0.05)

Species	$eta_{\mathit{fir},s}$	$\beta_{trt,s}$	$ heta_{fir,s}$	$ heta_{trt,s}$
Aningeria altissima	-0.094	+0.026	+0.311	+0.123
Gambeya africana	-0.174*	-0.074	+0.197	+0.024
Scottellia coriacea	-0.219^{*}	-0.079	+0.079	+0.220
Guibourtia ehie	-0.163	-0.051	+0.273	+0.099
Celtis zenkeri	-0.322^{*}	-0.034	-0.514	+0.001
Celtis mildbraedii	-0.181*	-0.091	+0.054	-0.031
Mansonia altissima	-0.017	+0.066	+0.134	+0.004
Eribroma oblogum	-0.156*	-0.023	+0.677	-0.019
Morus mesozygia	-0.165	-0.048	$+0.553^{*}$	-0.310
Ricinodendron heudelotii	+0.011	+0.043	+0.275	+0.099
Alstonia boonei	-0.145	-0.003	+0.182	+0.265
Ceiba pentandra	-0.051	+0.025	+0.270	+0.120
Holoptelea grandis	-0.173	-0.106	+0.157	+0.103
Nesogordonia papaverifera	-0.163*	-0.041	-0.943	-0.041
Pterygota macrocarpa	-0.124	+0.031	+0.153	-0.050
Celtis aldofi-friderici	-0.108	-0.037	+0.124	+0.084
Lannea welwitschii	-0.162*	-0.077	+0.481	+0.213
Sterculia rhinopetala	-0.053	-0.056	+0.091	-0.018
Triplochiton scleroxylon	-0.059	+0.028	+0.093	+0.112
Entandrophragma cylindricum	-0.168	-0.049	-0.261	+0.083

••3 Figures



Figure 1: Long-term vulnerability (demography and growth) to fire for 20 commercial timber species from the T'en'e semi-deciduous forest, West Africa.



Figure 2: Species vulnerability vs wood density (a, c) and bark thickness (b, d). Dots are species. The blue line represents the linear link between wood density and fire-vulnerabilities in terms of demography ($R^2 = 0.47$, slope = 0.25 and P = 0.03) and growth ($R^2 = 0.16$, slope = 0.41 and P = 0.48); while the orange line shows the linear link between bark thickness and fire-vulnerabilities in terms of demography ($R^2 = 0.59$, slope = -0.01 and P = 0.006) and growth ($R^2 = 0.23$, slope = -0.02 and P = 0.32).

604 Appendix

Species	Commercial Name	1978	1978	1978	2020	2020	2020
		Control	Logging	Thinning	Control	Logging	Thinning
Aningeria altissima	Aniegr´e blanc	105	95	32	4	4	0
Gambeya africana	Akatio	475	309	264	43	57	40
Scottellia coriacea	Akossika	309	257	141	60	19	2
Guibourtia ehie	Amazakou´e	123	84	60	9	4	5
Celtis zenkeri	Asan	285	214	9	43	18	17
Celtis mildbraedii	Ва	2433	1977	1393	670	475	243
Mansonia altissima	Bete	184	161	105	346	459	308
Eribroma oblongum	Bi	363	217	120	310	164	126
Morus mesozygia	Difou	158	142	106	26	25	10
Ricinodendron heudelotii	Eho	220	281	173	306	363	231
Alstonia boonei	Emien	42	41	8	29	26	5
Ceiba pentandra	Fromager	63	52	35	360	483	193
Holoptelea grandis	Kekele	48	35	6	78	38	13
Nesogordonia papaverifera	Kotibe	847	693	466	530	362	198
Pterygota macrocarpa	Koto	26	67	32	92	123	57
Celtis aldophi-friderici	Lohonf´e	480	381	214	23	5	6
Lannea welwitschii	Loloti	81	90	0	259	126	61
Sterculia rhinopetala	Lotofa	985	823	385	312	200	81
Triplochiton scleroxylon	Samba	593	601	243	378	441	162
Entandrophragma cylindricum	Sapelli	110	84	63	40	27	12

Table 4: List of the number of individuals per studied species, subdivided into 1978 and 2020 ad each of the years divided into control, thinned and logged.

Year	Long dry (Dec-Feb)	Long wet (March-June)	Short dry (July-August)	Short wet (Sept-Nov)
1983	60	737	45	267
1984	97	715	191	175
1985	60	412	297	301
1986	56	473	67	294
1987	204	514	158	197
1988	38	460	121	303
1989	66	313	318	403
1990	184	615	71	395
1991	39	548	228	239
1992	73	382	12	295
1993	56	444	55	292
1994	84	183	58	144
1995	5	391	37	172
1996	101	94	89	195
1997	8	364	20	202
1998	40	637	79	330
2000	109	155	53	207
2001	7	425	116	167
2002	105	583	109	93
2003	56	387	110	303
2004	110	519	129	424
2005	230	443	99	317
2006	76	690	72	349
2007	69	563	214	167
2008	129	508	252	424
2009	163	948	81	162
2010	216	655	176	348
2011	125	329	106	488
2012	92	598	80	411
2013	187	728	86	439
2014	254	884	131	390
2015	178	807	146	315
2016	86	860	191	244

Table 5: Seasonal rainfall statistics (mm) at the T´en´e station, Côte d'Ivoire