

# BIOTROPICA

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**TITLE: The ecology of tree reproduction in an African medium altitude rainforest**

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 The occurrence of flowering and fruiting in tropical trees will be affected by a variety of factors,  
29 linked to availability of resources and suitable climatic triggers, that may be affected by  
30 increasing global temperatures. Community-wide flowering and fruiting of 2,526 trees in 206  
31 plots were monitored over 24 years in the Budongo Forest Reserve (BFR), Uganda. Factors that  
32 were assessed included: the size of the tree, access to light, the impacts of liana load, effects of  
33 tree growth and variation between guilds of trees. Most flowering occurs at the end of the long  
34 dry season from February to April. Trees that had access to more light flowered and fruited  
35 more frequently. Pioneer and non-pioneer light demanding species tended to reproduce more  
36 frequently than shade-bearing species. Trees that grew faster between 1993-2011 also fruited  
37 more frequently. When examining all factors, growth rate, tree size, and crown position were all  
38 important for fruiting, while liana load but not growth rate was important in reducing flowering.  
39 Trees in BFR show a large decline in fruiting over 24 years, particularly in non-pioneer light  
40 demanders, shade-bearers, and species that produce fleshy fruits eaten by primates. The decline  
41 in fruit production is of concern and is having impacts on primate diets and potential recruitment  
42 of mahogany trees. Whether climate change is responsible is unclear but flowering of the  
43 guilds/dispersal types which show declines is correlated with months with the coolest maximum  
44 temperatures and we show temperature has been increasing in BFR since the early 1990s.

45

46 **Key Words:** Budongo Forest Reserve, crown position, climate impacts, guild, phenology, tree  
47 size, tropical forest

48 **Word Count: 5015 words**

49 **Tweetable abstract:** Flowering and fruiting of trees, providing fruit for primates, declines  
50 dramatically in tropical forest - warming temperatures may be to blame

51 A COMPLEX SET OF FACTORS POTENTIALLY AFFECT FLOWERING AND FRUITING  
52 of tropical trees but these are poorly understood. Factors such as climatic cues have been  
53 suggested to trigger flowering but whether a tree flowers and then subsequently produces fruit  
54 will also be affected by available resources which in turn will be affected by competition with  
55 neighbouring trees or with factors that affect the availability of light and of nutrients from the  
56 soil. To date, much research of the impact of climate change on flowering and fruiting has  
57 focused on the timing during the seasons of phenology of temperate/boreal zone plants (Root *et*  
58 *al.* 2005; Parmesan, 2006) with relatively few studies heralding from the tropics (*e.g.* Corlett &  
59 LaFrankie, 1998; Wright & Calderón, 2006). Further, there is a paucity of knowledge on how  
60 ecological processes operating at local scales might confound or obscure phenological responses  
61 of tropical trees to global climate change.

62

63 Tropical trees may be sensitive to increasing temperatures; exhibiting lower growth rates (Feeley  
64 *et al.* 2007; Clark *et al.* 2003), photosynthesising over a narrower range of temperatures  
65 compared to temperate species (Cunningham and Reid 2002; 2003), and changing allocations of  
66 root and above-ground biomass (Reichart and Borchert, 1984; Körner, 1991). Climate changes  
67 are expected to affect a number of proximate cues for tropical tree phenologies such as: onset of  
68 rain in seasonal climates (Sakai *et al.* 2006), drought in aseasonal climates (Ashton *et al.* 1998),  
69 cold snaps (van Schaik *et al.* 1993), increasing temperature (Wright and van Schaik, 1994;  
70 Thomas and Vince-Prue 1997), and soil moisture (Wright and Calderón, 2006). In addition,  
71 invariant cues that will not be affected directly by climate change such as seasonal changes in  
72 solar irradiance (Borchert *et al.* 2005; Kinnaid, 1992), changes in day length (Cleland *et al.*  
73 2007), and changes in timing of sunrise and sunset (Kinnaid and O'Brien, 2007) have been  
74 shown to affect phenology, but their impacts may be affected if climate change increases cloud  
75 cover for instance, and thereby reduces light level or duration.

76

77 Ecological factors that might also affect flowering and fruiting of tropical trees include species  
78 level differences in life-history (*e.g.* guilds and dispersal mechanisms), availability of light, age  
79 or size of tree, and competition from lianas (Wright *et al.* 2015). The role of these factors in  
80 determining phenology in tropical forests has rarely been studied, partly because most sites  
81 monitor large trees and often a subset of trees such as those important as food for primates.

82 These designs preclude community-wide analyses of flowering and fruiting. In one of the rare  
83 studies that looked at community-wide phenology in Africa, Sun *et al.* (1996) measured the  
84 flowering and fruiting of trees in the Nyungwe Forest in Rwanda and extrapolated the results to  
85 community wide phenology patterns using plot data on the abundance of trees. They showed that  
86 larger seeded species tended to have more aggregated fruiting patterns but did not assess guilds  
87 of tree fruit types. However, they selected the 15-20 cm diameter at breast height (DBH) as a  
88 measure of an ‘adult’ tree and only sampled trees bearing fleshy fruits, because of their interest  
89 in frugivores. Plumptre (1996) showed that several species will not fruit until at a much larger  
90 DBH than 20 cm so that it is important to factor in DBH in any analysis of phenology data.  
91 Studies of tropical tree phenology have usually assessed the times of the year when flowering  
92 and fruit production occur (Chapman *et al.* 2005a; 2005b; 2012) or the frequency of flowering  
93 and fruiting over the years (Bush *et al.* 2017; Bush *et al.* 2018; Adamescu *et al.* 2018). This  
94 paper makes a community-wide ecological assessment of phenology of trees in plots from the  
95 Budongo Forest Reserve (BFR) in western Uganda, monitoring all species of trees larger than 10  
96 cm DBH in plots, because community-level effects may be more closely aligned to functional  
97 change in the ecosystem than detailed mechanistic analyses of individual species where usually  
98 ‘mature’ individuals are selected for monitoring.

99

100 The BFR is one of the larger Forest Reserves in Uganda, situated on the escarpment above Lake  
101 Albert in the Western Rift Valley, a medium altitude semi-deciduous moist tropical forest  
102 dominated by *Cynometra alexandri*, *Celtis mildbraedii*, *Celtis zenkeri* and four mahogany  
103 species (*Khaya* and *Entandrophragma* species). It has been one of the main sources of  
104 hardwood for the country since 1925. Early management aimed to undertake selective logging  
105 after cycles of 60-80 years (Plumptre, 1996). In 1991, the Budongo Forest Project, which  
106 subsequently became the Budongo Conservation Field Station (BCFS), was established to  
107 monitor the impacts of the selective logging and to better understand the ecology of the forest  
108 including the role of frugivores in seed dispersal and forest regeneration (Plumptre, 2006;  
109 Plumptre and Reynolds, 1994; 1996). Unlike many sites where tree phenology is monitored in  
110 tropical forests, a plot-based approach to phenology was employed, monitoring all trees larger  
111 than 10 cm DBH in 7 m radius plots across two compartments in the forest. This provides a  
112 unique opportunity to assess how community-wide fruiting and flowering in the forest varies by

113 tree size (Plumptre, 1995; Wright *et al.* 2005), its position in the canopy, with guild of tree, and  
114 with its growth rate to better understand the causes of variation in tree phenology within and  
115 between species. A decline in fruiting has been reported from the forest (Babweteera *et al.* 2012;  
116 Plumptre, 2012) but the causes are not known and the decline is described in more detail here.

117 Analyses focused on four main questions:

- 118 1. What are the annual patterns in community-wide flower and fruit availability in Budongo  
119 Forest Reserve? This is important to understand the ecology of the forest and the feeding  
120 ecology of dependant species.
- 121 2. What are the differences in phenology between guilds of trees and their seed dispersal  
122 mechanisms? Guilds of species are more likely to show a similar functional response to  
123 changes in the environment.
- 124 3. How does phenology vary with respect to the size of a tree, its position in the forest and  
125 what impacts can lianas have on the phenophases? It is important to understand what  
126 ecological factors may be hindering reproduction in trees separately from changes in  
127 climate.
- 128 4. How has community-wide fruit and flower production varied over time? Understanding the  
129 long term trends in flower and fruit availability in the forest and how trends have varied  
130 over time is important for understanding broader ecological impacts, and possible impacts  
131 of climate change.

132

## 133 **METHODS**

134 DESIGN OF STUDY - Phenology data collection was initiated in the BFR in 1993 by BCFS. Five  
135 line transects were established in each of eight logging compartments in the forest (Plumptre,  
136 1996) which were used for surveying primates (Plumptre & Reynolds, 1994; 1996) using a  
137 stratified random sampling method (Plumptre & Reynolds, 1994). At 100-metre intervals, seven-  
138 metre radius plots were established to measure the abundance of trees within the compartments.  
139 Phenology data were collected monthly in 206 plots in two compartments, N15 (100 plots) and  
140 N3 (106 plots), which have been monitored almost continuously from January 1993 to December  
141 2016. A total of 2,526 trees were monitored from 125 species in 35 families. Initially 1,509 trees  
142 were marked for monitoring in January 1993. New trees which had reached 10 cm DBH were  
143 added for monitoring in 1997 (202 trees) and again in 2011 (812 trees) as individuals in the plots

144 died and were replaced. Effectively, all trees greater than 10 cm DBH were monitored within an  
145 area of 3.17 hectares across both sites, allowing us to estimate flower and fruit availability per  
146 unit area. Trees were monitored visually rather than collecting fruit in traps because it provides a  
147 more direct assessment of the phenology and has been found to be more accurate (Morellato *et*  
148 *al.* 2010).

149

150 DATA COLLECTED FROM MONITORED TREES - Each tree selected for phenology monitoring was  
151 visited once each month and the presence of flowers, unripe and ripe fruit were recorded on a 0-4  
152 abundance scale. In the analyses, these scores were recoded to 1 or 0 for the presence or absence  
153 of the phenophase. Although unripe fruit data were recorded, we only analyse here the results of  
154 ripe fruit and flowering. From January 1998 observers also estimated the number of fruits by eye  
155 by counting a portion of the canopy and multiplying this by similar areas to estimate the total  
156 number in the canopy. All trees were marked for growth measurements by painting a line around  
157 the trunk at the point of measurement. DBH was recorded in 1992, 1997 and 2011 and used to  
158 calculate an average annual growth rate (GROWTH) between the earliest measurement and the  
159 re-measurement in 2011.

160 *Tree Size Class:* Tree species exhibit differences in their range of stem diameters. Understorey  
161 trees such as *Rinorea angustifolia*, and *Lasiodiscus mildbraedii* rarely reach 40 cm DBH, while  
162 large canopy species such as *Khaya anthotheca* and *Cynometra alexandrii* can exceed 200 cm  
163 DBH. In order to assess whether larger sized individuals tend to flower or fruit more frequently  
164 than small sized individuals (Plumptre, 1995) it was therefore necessary to standardise across the  
165 range of DBH values. Tree species where at least 30 individuals were monitored over the years  
166 were grouped into 5 classes of DBH based on relative sizes of the trees from the minimum sizes  
167 (10 cm) to the largest sizes for that species. This classified each species from small to large  
168 individuals on a 5-class scale (DBH.GROUP) and each individual was assigned to the size class  
169 1-5 based on the cut-off values for its species. We also computed a binary class of DBH with  
170 classes 1-3 in one group and 4-5 in a second group (DBH2) to separate the largest trees from  
171 other trees.

172 *Crown Position:* We assessed the location of individual tree canopies with respect to the forest  
173 canopy using a Crown Position Score (CP), or Crown Exposure Index, in 1993, and 1997 (for  
174 trees added at that time): 1 = no direct light; 2 = side light from a gap; 3 = vertical overhead light

175 but tree canopy below forest canopy level, 4 = tree canopy at forest canopy level; 5 = emergent  
176 tree above canopy (Dawkins, 1958; Alder & Synnott, 1992). Crown position is a proxy measure  
177 for light availability. We also grouped the CP classes into a binary group with classes 1-3 in one  
178 set and 4-5 in a second set (CP.GROUP) to separate trees at canopy level from other trees. A  
179 Fourier analysis (Bush *et al.* 2017) of the frequencies of flowering and fruiting by individual  
180 trees was made for the trees in the two CP.GROUP classes.

181 *Liana impacts* (LIANA): Similarly we recorded the position of lianas on the tree using a Liana  
182 Score (LIANA): 1 = no lianas on tree; 2 = lianas on bole of tree; 3 = lianas in branches and parts  
183 of tree crown; 4 = lianas covering crown of tree (Plumptre, 1996). Lianas will compete with a  
184 tree's ability to photosynthesise and we expected to find a reduction in phenophase with higher  
185 liana scores.

186 Data from 1997, 2001, 2002, 2003 and 2008 were not included in the analysis because of  
187 concerns about accuracy. So in all analyses these years were omitted. Occasional months (Dec  
188 95, Nov 96, Oct 98, Jan & Feb 99, Sep, Oct & Dec 2000) were also not included because funding  
189 or illness had prevented data collection. A total of 18.5 years of data were therefore available for  
190 analysis.

191

192 DISPERSAL TYPE AND TREE GUILD – Tree species were categorised by seed dispersal methods:  
193 Wind dispersal, Ballistic dispersal (fruits that tend to explode open), Auto dispersal (tend to fall  
194 from the tree – *e.g.* Beans in pods), and Animal dispersal. Animal dispersal was classified into  
195 three further groups: Large Fleshy fruits (larger than 2-cm long), Small Fleshy fruits (less than 2-  
196 cm) and Zoo-Capsules (hard berries that birds tend to disperse). Tree guilds were assigned using  
197 the classification of Hawthorne (1995) and Sheil (1996): 1 = pioneer; 2 = non-pioneer light  
198 demander (NPLD); and 3 = shade-bearers. A few other species that could not be confidently  
199 assigned to a guild were omitted from the analyses. A Fourier analysis using the methods of  
200 Bush *et al.* (2017) was used to estimate the cycle length of flowering and fruiting by individual  
201 trees. The dominant cycle length was also analysed for each fruit dispersal category and guild  
202 (Adamescu *et al.* 2018). Fourier analysis was only made on trees with at least 50 months of  
203 continuous data. This is below the recommended six years duration but the data precluded longer  
204 periods: short cycle lengths (but not necessarily cycles longer than 24 months) should be  
205 accurately identifiable from this time series.

206

207 CLIMATE DATA – Rainfall was measured at BCFS in a plastic rain gauge read at 8 am and  
208 recorded to the nearest millimetre. Maximum and minimum temperatures were recorded at the  
209 same time. These climate data were analysed to obtain average values for each month, average  
210 values for a seven day running mean and average values for each day across years. ENSO El  
211 Niño 4 (NINO4) Sea Surface Temperature (SST) values from 1993-2017  
212 (<https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/nino-sst-indices-nino-12-3-34-4-oni-and-tni>) and  
213 Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) SST values from 1993-2010  
214 (<http://www.jamstec.go.jp/frcgc/research/d1/iod/HTML/Dipole%20Mode%20Index.html>) were  
215 compiled as they have been shown to influence African climate (Nicholson and Kim, 1997;  
216 Williams and Hanan, 2011). NINO4 measures the central-western Pacific Ocean temperatures  
217 and IOD measures the Indian Ocean temperatures, both known to affect climate and primary  
218 productivity in East Africa (Williams and Hanan, 2011).

219 Analyses were made in R version 3.4.3 (R Core Team, 2017) and focused on the  
220 following:

221

222 MONTHLY PHENOPHASE PATTERNS ACROSS THE YEAR – Community-wide patterns in annual  
223 flowering and fruiting of trees in Budongo were assessed by calculating the proportion of years  
224 for each month that individual trees flowered/fruited in that month between January 1993-  
225 December 2016. We selected trees that had at least 4 years of data using all the data for each  
226 individual estimate of proportion of years for each month that the tree flowered/fruited. Trees  
227 that died between 1993-2016 were removed from the analysis in case they were diseased when  
228 monitored and might have affected the analyses. These proportions were then summed and  
229 grouped by fruit dispersal type to assess the average number of trees of each dispersal type  
230 flowering and fruiting in each month of the year per hectare.

231

232 EFFECT OF TREE SIZE, CROWN POSITION, RATE OF GROWTH AND LIANAS ON PHENOLOGY – To  
233 assess the combined impacts of tree size, crown position, liana cover, guild, dispersal type and  
234 rate of growth on phenology we fitted a generalised linear mixed model (GLMM) to predict the  
235 proportion of years each individual tree fruited/flowered from the above factors using species as  
236 a random factor. We opted to use the proportion of years when each phenophase was shown

237 because of the long time period of data (as opposed to predicting a 1/0 score for whether an  
238 individual tree flowered/fruited over the full time period). Effectively the GLMM assesses which  
239 factors predict more frequent flowering/fruited across years and assumes that trees that are  
240 young or stressed will flower or fruit less frequently than those that are mature and less stressed.

241  
242  $P_{phenophase} \sim Dispersal\ type + Growth + DBH2 + CP + LIANA + GUILD + (1/Species)$

243 where  $P_{phenophase}$  = Proportion of years with phenophase

244

245 A binomial GLMM was made in the lme4 package (Bates *et al.* 2015) using the *glmer*  
246 function, weighted by the number of years of data for an individual tree and using a Logit link  
247 function. Anova tests were made between models selectively dropping variables to test for  
248 significant differences between models. Over-dispersion was assessed by calculating the sum of  
249 squared Pearson residuals/ (sample size – number of parameters) (Zuur *et al.* 2009). No over-  
250 dispersion was found for flowering ( $\emptyset = 0.71$ ) and fruiting ( $\emptyset = 0.49$ ) and we proceeded with the  
251 binomial model.

252

253 INTER-ANNUAL VARIATION IN PHENOPHASE PATTERNS – The number of trees flowering or fruiting  
254 each year was calculated for trees which had been monitored between 1993 and 2016. Anomaly  
255 values were calculated for the forest as a whole comparing the value in each month with the  
256 mean value of that month across all years to assess if any general patterns could be detected for  
257 the forest as a whole. Anomaly scores were calculated for all trees, the three most common  
258 guilds and different dispersal types. In order to assess whether climate may be affecting  
259 flowering and fruiting, anomaly scores were correlated with the rainfall, maximum and minimum  
260 temperatures and the NINO4 and IOD SST values (Wright and Calderón, 2006) with up to a 12  
261 month lag using Pearson correlations.

262

## 263 **RESULTS**

264 MONTHLY PHENOPHASE PATTERNS ACROSS THE YEAR – On average 13.3 trees flowered each  
265 month per hectare of forest but only 5.2 trees/ha produced ripe fruit each month. However  
266 variation in monthly flowering was large: flowering peaked in March (Fig. 1) with high numbers  
267 of trees also flowering in February and April. This occurs at the end of the long dry season from

268 December to early March (Fig. 1) when many trees lose their leaves and produce a flush of new  
269 leaves. Fruiting was more consistent across the year although it declines in the June-August short  
270 dry season when temperatures were lower (Fig. 1). On average fewer trees per hectare produced  
271 ripe fruit than flowered over the year indicating that many flowering events do not set fruit or  
272 that unripe fruit may be aborted before reaching maturity. Maximum temperature peaks in the  
273 long dry season (Dec-Feb) and is coolest in July-August while minimum temperatures show the  
274 opposite pattern (Fig. 1). Rainfall is bi-modal when analysed at monthly intervals but varies  
275 significantly within months of the year and these fluctuations (calculated using a running 7-day  
276 mean) are consistent between years (Fig. 1). To what extent these regular fluctuations within  
277 months of the year may act as triggers for flowering and fruiting is unknown.

278

279 **DISPERSAL TYPE AND TREE GUILD** –Fourier analysis of the frequency of phenophase for  
280 individual trees showed major variation between trees with different dispersal methods. Wind  
281 dispersed species had very consistent flowering times at annual intervals, while auto, and animal  
282 (capsules and small fleshy fruits) dispersed species flowered at both 12 and 18 month intervals  
283 (Fig. 2). Although flowering annually, fruiting of trees with wind dispersal occurred over a large  
284 range of intervals. This may be partly due to the fact that their fruits can stay on a tree for several  
285 months slowly dispersing the seeds so that no clear dominant cycles are identified despite the  
286 fact that flowering has a dominant 12 month cycle. Large fleshy-fruit producing trees tended to  
287 fruit at 18 month intervals. Fruits with ballistic dispersal methods tended to fruit at a sub-annual  
288 frequency (6 months).

289 Box plots of the frequency of flowering and fruiting across fruit dispersal type and guild  
290 show large variations between these functional types (Fig. S1. Supplementary Material). A  
291 Fourier analysis of flowering and fruiting frequencies by guild type did not produce any clear  
292 patterns between species (Fig. S2. Supplementary Material).

293

294 **EFFECT OF TREE SIZE, CROWN POSITION AND LIANAS ON PHENOLOGY** –

295 *Tree size:* Larger individuals within species flowered more frequently with higher proportions of  
296 trees flowering in group 4 and 5 classes compared with classes 1-3 (Table 1). Large trees also  
297 fruited more frequently (Table 1). This pattern was also found when comparing the average  
298 estimated number of fruits per fruiting event per tree (Fig. S3 Supplementary material),

299 indicating that both the frequency of fruiting and the numbers of individual fruits increases as  
300 DBH increases across species. Analysing the most abundant tree species separately, we found an  
301 increase in the proportion of trees fruiting and in the average number of fruits per tree in a  
302 fruiting event with increasing DBH size class (Table 2).

303

304 *Crown Position:* The proportion of trees flowering or fruiting increased with larger crown  
305 position scores (Table 1). Trees at canopy level (score 4/5) fruited more frequently also. A  
306 Fourier analysis of the variation in flowering and fruiting cycles for trees in CP.GROUP score 1  
307 or 2 did not show any clear patterns with crown position (Fig. S4 Supplementary material).

308

309 *Liana score:* There was no clear difference in the proportion of years in which a tree flowered  
310 with increasing liana load but there was a trend for decreasing fruiting with liana score (Table 1).

311

312 *Factors predicting phenology:* The GLMM for flowering identified DBH.GROUP, CP, and  
313 LIANA as significant factors predicting the proportion of years in which trees flowered but  
314 GROWTH, Dispersal type and GUILD were not significant at any level. The results show that  
315 the larger DBH (within a species range of DBH values), and the presence of the tree crown in the  
316 canopy or above were good predictors of increased flowering frequency but lianas covering the  
317 crown (score 4) could decrease flowering frequency (Table 3).

318 The GLMM for fruiting identified GROWTH, DBH.GROUP, and CP as being significant  
319 variables explaining increasing proportion of years in which trees fruited but that Dispersal type,  
320 GUILD and LIANA were not significant (Table 3). Larger DBH sizes (relative to the spread for  
321 a species), crown presence in the canopy, and increasing rates of growth were significant  
322 predictors of increased frequency of fruiting per year (Table 3).

323

324 INTER-ANNUAL VARIATION IN PHENOPHASE PATTERNS – Anomaly scores for both number of  
325 individuals flowering (Fig. 3) and fruiting (Fig. 4), as well as number of species flowering and  
326 fruiting each month, show that there has been a general decline in individuals fruiting across  
327 years but less so with flowering individuals (Fig. 3). There has been a decline in flowering of  
328 shade-bearer species but not of the other two guilds (Fig. 3) and NPLD and shade-bearer species  
329 have shown more of a decline in fruiting over time than pioneer species (Fig. 4). Further analyses  
330 of anomaly scores between dispersal types and across guilds for only large trees of each species

331 show that it is the decline in flowering (Fig. S5 Supplementary Material) and fruiting (Fig. S6) of  
332 trees producing fleshy fruits (large or small) that is contributing to the overall decline and this  
333 holds if only large trees are considered (Fig. S7 & S8 Supplementary Material).

334 Analysis of the rainfall in BFR shows that when comparing the first six years of data with  
335 the last six years of data that rainfall has become more strongly seasonal. Rainfall has increased  
336 in the wet seasons and dry periods have become longer in the dry seasons (Fig. 5). Rainfall also  
337 has increased in the later parts of each wet season recently but decreased in the December-  
338 February dry season. There is some indication that temperature has increased when comparing  
339 the same time periods but unfortunately the thermometer location was moved in the late 1990s so  
340 we cannot be sure whether the change is due to the move or real increases. Comparison of the  
341 period between 2000-2005 with 2011-2016 shows warmer maximum and minimum temperatures  
342 in recent times, particularly at the coolest time of year, although the December and early January  
343 maximum temperatures have been cooler (Fig. 5).

344 There were few significant correlations between NINO4/IOD values and numbers of  
345 individuals or species flowering in the three main guilds (only using data from large trees). There  
346 were significant correlations with actual climate variables at site, particularly maximum  
347 temperature or the difference between maximum and minimum temperature (Table 4). Making  
348 the same correlations with seed dispersal type also indicated that maximum temperature and  
349 temperature range in the day are important and correlate with no time lag for wind dispersed and  
350 fleshy fruiting species (Table 4). Wind dispersed species flowered when maximum temperature  
351 or temperature difference was large while small and large fleshy fruiting species flowered when  
352 maximum temperature or daily temperature differences were low (Table 4).

353

## 354 **DISCUSSION**

355 The flowering patterns of the BFR are very seasonal, linked to the semi-deciduous nature of the  
356 forest. Following the long dry season from December to February flowering peaks in March,  
357 which is slightly later than the January flowering peaks in the Nyungwe Forest to the south of  
358 Budongo. Here, though flowering peaks during the short dry season between December to  
359 February and not after the main dry season between June-August (Sun *et al.* 1996). The  
360 Nyungwe Forest study though only included trees producing fleshy fruits and in Budongo the  
361 flowering of large fleshy-fruit and zoo-capsule producing species, but not small fleshy-fruit

362 producing trees, tends to occur when it is wetter also (Table 4). Fruiting of trees tends to peak in  
363 the wet seasons (March-May and September-November) but certain species do not follow this  
364 pattern. For example, wind dispersed species fruit at the end of the long dry season when many  
365 of the trees have lost their leaves so that the seeds have more chance of being dispersed far by  
366 the wind (Fig. 1). This confirms the broad patterns observed in the diets of primates studied at  
367 Budongo with more seed and pods eaten in the long dry season and fleshy fruits more commonly  
368 eaten in the wet seasons (Plumptre, 2006).

369 We have assessed various ecological factors that could potentially affect flowering and  
370 fruiting of trees in BFR and which could influence results of phenology studies elsewhere in the  
371 tropics. The position of a tree with respect to the canopy (and hence its ability to receive light)  
372 was an important factor and once trees reach the canopy they flower and fruit more frequently.  
373 This is also related to the size of the tree (which may be linked to age although, since some trees  
374 in Budongo have not grown in 24 years, DBH and age do not correlate perfectly). Other studies  
375 have found that the size of the tree and the crown position affect flowering and fruiting with both  
376 increased size and increased light leading to greater reproduction (Plumptre 1996; Wright *et al.*  
377 2005; Ouédraogo *et al.* 2017). We had expected differences between tree guilds with pioneer  
378 species tending to grow fast, reproduce quickly, and invest less in wood density (Enquist *et al.*  
379 1999) because they will die at a younger age than NPLD and shade-bearing species (Obeso  
380 2002). Understorey species (shade-bearer) are presumably adapted to an environment below the  
381 canopy though, and would be expected to flower and fruit in such conditions and would not be so  
382 affected by crown position or size. However, guild type was not a significant predictor of the  
383 frequency of flowering or fruiting.

384 The growth rate of a tree also had a significant effect on fruiting frequency. Trees that  
385 grow faster will likely have more resources available for this growth and hence can also invest in  
386 fruit production once pollination has occurred. We had wondered if we would find a trade-off  
387 between growth and reproduction in individual trees (Obeso 2002) with those trees reproducing  
388 more frequently growing less fast but this was not the case for BFR. Where lianas covered the  
389 crown of a tree flowering frequency was reduced but liana load did not affect fruiting frequency  
390 significantly. The studies of Wright *et al.* (2005; 2015) found strong effects of lianas for some  
391 species with higher proportions of reproductive individuals with lighter liana loads. In BFR we  
392 know that trees with lianas in the crown grow more slowly and are more likely to die

393 (unpublished data), and so expected a reduction in flowering and fruiting with increasing liana  
394 load.

395 We showed a marked decline in the fruiting of trees in BFR from the early 1990s with a  
396 decline but then recovery in flowering over the same time (Fig. 3). There was a peak in 2012  
397 when considering all species but the causes of this is unknown. This decline is mostly found in  
398 the slower growing NPLD and shade-bearer species (Fig 3) and mostly those trees that produce  
399 fleshy fruit (Fig. S6). Chapman *et al.* (2012) documented decreasing fruit production between  
400 1970 and 1984 from one dataset followed by increasing production between 1990 and 2002 from  
401 another set of trees measured in the same part of Kibale National Park in western Uganda, but it  
402 is unclear why there are these long term trends and differences between these two periods.  
403 Climate is likely to be an important factor in triggering flowering (Chapman *et al.* 2005b; Wright  
404 *et al.* 1999; Wright & Calderón 2006). We have shown that climate is changing in BFR with a  
405 trend of warming maximum and minimum temperatures and a greater seasonality in rainfall (Fig.  
406 5), which follows predictions that have been made for climate change in the Albertine Rift  
407 (Seimon & Plumptre, 2012). Pioneer, NPLD and Wind dispersed species tended to flower when  
408 maximum temperatures were high while fleshy fruiting trees (Small and Large) and shade-  
409 bearers flowered in months when maximum temperatures were coolest (Table 4). More detailed  
410 experimentation is needed at a species level to assess what triggers flowering and fruiting but  
411 there is some evidence that the decline in fruiting of fleshy fruiting and shade-bearer species may  
412 be being affected by the warming temperatures at BFR.

413 We cannot be sure yet whether climate change is affecting the phenology of BFR but the  
414 large decline in fruiting is a concern as it is having impacts on the ability of primates to secure  
415 fruit in their diets. Studies of diets of monkeys have shown reduced fruit intake in 2012-2014  
416 compared with 1993-1995 (Plumptre, 2006). Nyombi (2015) showed that fruit intake had  
417 markedly declined from 63% to 32% in blue monkeys (*Cercopithecus mitis*) and from 67% to  
418 33% in red-tailed monkeys (*C. ascanius*). The diet of the monkeys is now predominantly leaves  
419 and other plant parts such as shoots and the bark. Recruitment of trees in the forest is therefore  
420 likely to be affected over time. Plumptre (1995) showed that mahoganies did not fruit until they  
421 attained large size (at least 50 cm DBH) and *Khaya anthotheca*, the most common mahogany  
422 species in BFR, fruited frequently between 1993 and 1997. However, of the 62 *Khaya* trees that  
423 have been monitored since 1997, only ten have fruited once in the past 20 years and none more

424 than once. For the future production of timber in the forest this is of great concern. We need a  
425 better understanding of what causes trees to flower and fruit and hope this paper encourages  
426 further research on the trigger mechanisms.

427

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436

#### 437 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

438 The data from this study will be made available on Dryad once published.

439

#### 440 **LITERATURE CITED**

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624

625 **TABLES**

626

627 TABLE 1. The average proportion of years that trees flowered or fruited in each of the five  
 628 diameter classes, five crown position classes and four liana score classes\*. Superscripts with  
 629 different letters were significantly different in binomial GLMM with species as a random factor,  
 630 those with no letters were not significantly different.

Measure	Phenophase	Categories				
		1	2	3	4	5
Tree Diameter	Flower	0.128 <sup>a</sup>	0.173 <sup>b</sup>	0.150 <sup>b</sup>	0.260 <sup>c</sup>	0.334 <sup>d</sup>
	Ripe Fruit	0.024 <sup>a</sup>	0.037 <sup>a</sup>	0.053 <sup>b</sup>	0.101 <sup>c</sup>	0.154 <sup>c</sup>
Crown Position	Flower	0.133 <sup>a</sup>	0.130 <sup>a</sup>	0.182 <sup>b</sup>	0.244 <sup>c</sup>	0.334 <sup>d</sup>
	Ripe Fruit	0.040 <sup>a</sup>	0.046 <sup>a</sup>	0.082 <sup>a</sup>	0.126 <sup>b</sup>	0.178 <sup>c</sup>
Liana Score	Flower	0.139 <sup>a</sup>	0.157	0.107	0.105 <sup>b</sup>	
	Ripe Fruit	0.049	0.059	0.040	0.036	

631

632 \*Diameter classes: 1 = Smallest; 2 = small; 3 = medium; 4 = large; 5 = largest

633 Crown Position: 1 = no overhead light; 2 = side light; 3 = overhead light; 4 = at crown level; 5 =  
 634 emergent

635 Liana score: 1 = no lianas; 2 = lianas on stem; 3 = lianas in branches but not all of crown; 4 =  
 636 lianas covering crown

637

638 TABLE 2. The ten most abundant species in BFR with the number of trees monitored (N), the  
 639 percentage of trees fruiting per year (top line) and the average number of fruits on a tree (second  
 640 line in parentheses) for each of the five DBH classes. In some years the numbers of fruits per tree  
 641 were not recorded and where there were no values the cell is left blank. These ten species form  
 642 71% of tree stems in the forest and 54% of the basal area of trees in the forest.  
 643

Species	N	DBH Class				
		1	2	3	4	5
<i>Celtis mildbraedii</i>	450	0.43 (5)	1.50 (74)	2.50	3.20 (136)	5.97 (317)
<i>Lasiodiscus mildbraedii</i>	369	1.76 (70)	1.78	1.53 (100)	1.43	2.98
<i>Funtumia elastica</i>	281	6.46 (5)	8.52 (5)	10.75 (7)	14.50 (8)	27.87 (9)
<i>Rinorea angustifolia</i>	164	3.48 (186)	3.36 (35)	8.04 (229)	6.04 (595)	9.05 (450)
<i>Trichilia rubescens</i>	130	0.96 (21)	2.69 (111)	1.24 (28)	2.68 (330)	2.62
<i>Cynometra alexandri</i>	96	0.55	1.13 (203)	7.88 (47)	16.03 (85)	21.79 (180)
<i>Celtis zenkeri</i>	95	1.72 (30)	3.57 (111)	9.46 (201)	13.35 (673)	17.22 (433)
<i>Celtis gomphophylla</i>	82	18.62 (150)	13.69 (199)	18.63 (168)	32.47 (336)	31.83 (243)
<i>Belonophora coffeoides</i>	34	3.09 (43)	3.57	2.04 (231)	3.57 (24)	
<i>Tapura fischeri</i>	32	0.00	3.06	16.33 (2)	6.35 (237)	

645 TABLE 3. Comparison of binomial GLMM results: GLMM 1 assessing the effects of Dispersal  
 646 type, crown position (CP), tree size (DBH.GROUP), rate of growth of the trees (GROWTH),  
 647 lianas score (LIANA) and GUILD on the proportion of years in which a tree flowered or fruited.  
 648 Species were entered as a random factor in the GLMM.

<i>Flowering models</i>					<i>Fruiting models</i>			
<i>Model selected:</i>	<i>Growth+ DBH2 + CP + LIANA +(1 Species)</i>				<i>Growth+ DBH2 + CP +(1 Species)</i>			
<i>Coefficients of final model</i>	<b>Coefficient</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Z-value</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Coefficient</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>Z-value</b>	<b>P</b>
Intercept	-2.29	0.20	-11.47	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	-3.89	0.29	-13.32	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
GROWTH	0.15	0.09	1.60	0.11	0.31	0.13	2.38	<b>0.019</b>
DBH.GROUP 2	0.15	0.07	1.99	<b>0.04</b>	0.25	0.14	1.86	0.062
DBH.GROUP 3	0.20	0.09	2.22	<b>0.03</b>	0.65	0.15	4.65	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
DBH.GROUP 4	0.59	0.09	6.49	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	1.00	0.14	7.06	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
DBH.GROUP 5	0.91	0.11	8.02	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	1.12	0.17	6.51	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
CP score 2	0.03	0.07	0.39	0.695	0.20	0.13	1.51	0.13
CP score 3	0.13	0.08	1.58	0.11	0.22	0.15	1.47	0.14
CP score 4	0.37	0.12	3.19	<b>0.001</b>	0.56	0.18	3.09	<b>0.002</b>
CP score 5	0.52	0.24	2.18	<b>0.029</b>	0.66	0.36	1.84	0.07
LIANA score 2	0.06	0.08	0.85	0.39				
LIANA score 3	0.08	0.12	0.69	0.48				
LIANA score 4	-1.58	0.53	-2.99	<b>0.002</b>				

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655 TABLE 4. Correlations between number of individuals and number of species flowering and  
 656 various measures of climate. Only trees with DBH scores 4 or 5 were included in the analysis.  
 657 No significant correlations were found where there are no data.

Climate variable	Number Individuals			Number of Species		
	r value	Prob	Lag (month)	r value	Prob	Lag (month)
<i>Pioneer Trees</i>						
IOD SST				-0.212	0.023	4
Maximum Temperature	0.183	0.021	0	0.186	0.018	0
Minimum Temperature	-0.173	0.029	0			
Daily Temp. difference	0.211	0.008	0	0.188	0.018	0
<i>Non-pioneer Light Demander</i>						
IOD SST	0.244	0.018	5			
Rainfall				0.205	0.007	7
Maximum Temperature	0.326	<0.001	0	0.230	0.003	0
Minimum Temperature	0.187	0.017	6	0.250	0.001	7
Daily Temp difference	0.248	0.002	0	0.161	0.041	2
<i>Shade-bearer</i>						
IOD SST				0.209	0.028	0
Rainfall	0.180	0.018	4	0.158	0.039	4
Maximum Temperature				-0.353	<0.001	0
Minimum Temperature				-0.194	0.013	4
Daily Temp difference				-0.327	<0.001	0
<i>Auto dispersal (fall from tree)</i>						
ENSO NINO4 SST	0.179	0.029	2	0.201	0.009	2
<i>Ballistic Dispersal</i>						
ENSO NINO4 SST	-0.193	0.019	6			
IOD SST	0.268	0.011	0	0.196	0.039	0
Rainfall	0.204	0.008	0			
<i>Large Fleshy fruit</i>						
Rainfall	0.177	0.021	2	0.247	0.001	2
Maximum Temperature	-0.295	<0.001	0	-0.422	<0.001	0
Minimum Temperature				0.159	0.046	0
Daily Temp difference	-0.290	<0.001	0	-0.391	<0.001	0
<i>Small Fleshy Fruit</i>						
ENSO NINO4 SST	-0.202	0.014	4	-0.229	0.003	2
Maximum Temperature	-0.209	0.008	3	-0.242	0.002	2
Daily Temp difference	-0.241	0.001	7	-0.212	0.002	0
<i>Wind dispersed</i>						
ENSO NINO4 SST	0.173	0.034	0			
IOD SST	0.236	0.022	4	0.184	0.049	4

Rainfall	0.194	0.011	5	0.169	0.027	5
Maximum Temperature	0.283	<0.001	0			
Minimum Temperature	0.238	0.002	5			
Daily Temp difference	0.245	0.011	0			
<i>Capsules dispersed by birds</i>						
Rainfall	0.249	0.011	4			
Minimum Temperature				-0.174	0.027	3
Daily Temp difference				0.207	0.008	3

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660

661 **FIGURES**

662 **FIGURE 1.** The number of trees flowering (A) and fruiting (B) per hectare in each month of the  
663 year averaged between 1993-2016. Trees are plotted by their seed dispersal methods. Note the  
664 y-axis scale is different between the plots. Rainfall (C) and maximum and minimum temperature  
665 (D) values for each day, weekly running mean and monthly average are plotted showing the  
666 seasons of the year in BFR and inter- and intra-month variation in climate that occurs  
667 consistently between years.

668 **FIGURE 2.** Violin plots of the density of flowering (A) and fruiting (B) frequency of all  
669 individual trees in each dispersal type category.

670 **FIGURE 3.** Anomaly scores comparing the monthly number of individuals (left) and species  
671 (right) flowering with the average monthly number across the 24 years. The dotted horizontal  
672 line gives the mean across all months. A 13-month running mean (black line) is plotted for the  
673 average value of the six months prior to and after each specific month.

674

675 **FIGURE 4.** Anomaly scores comparing the monthly number of individuals (left) and species  
676 (right) fruiting with the average monthly number across the 24 years. The dotted horizontal line  
677 gives the mean across all months. A 13-month running mean (black line) is plotted for the  
678 average value of the six months prior to and after each specific month.

679

680 **FIGURE 5.** Differences in A) rainfall, B) maximum temperature and C) minimum temperature  
681 between 1993-1998 and 2011-2016. The black areas of the chart show where average rainfall  
682 between 1993-1998 was higher than the average rainfall between 2011-2016 and grey areas  
683 show where the average rainfall was greater between 2011-2016. A 15-day running mean was  
684 used to smooth some of the variation but provide more detail than monthly averages.

685

686

687 FIGURE 1.

688

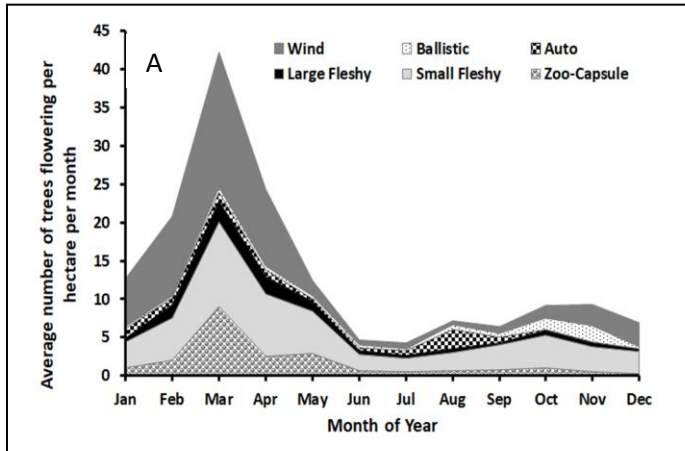
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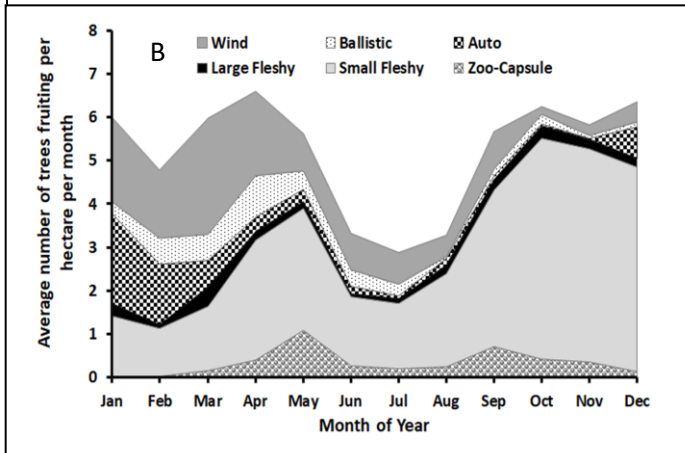
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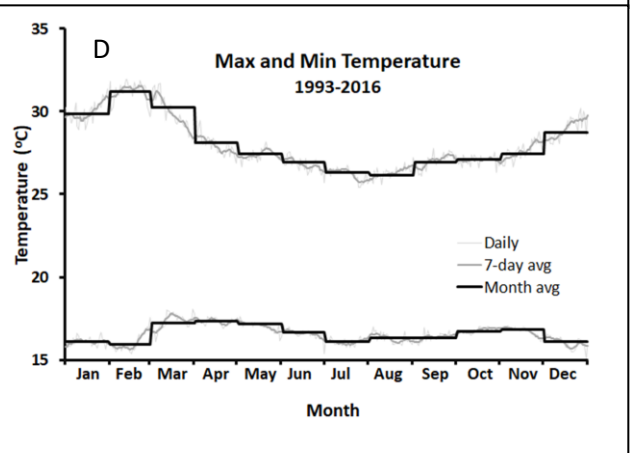
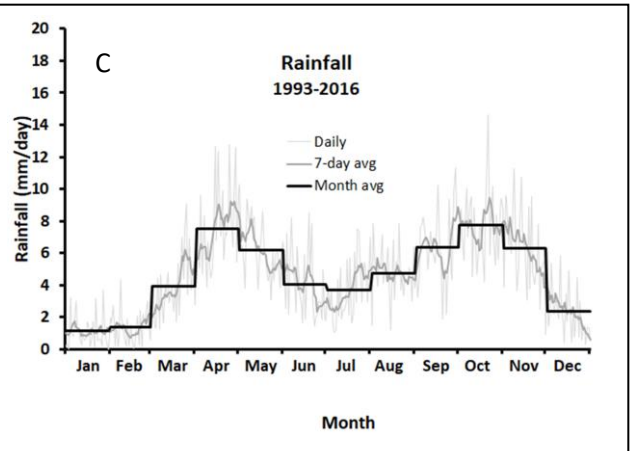
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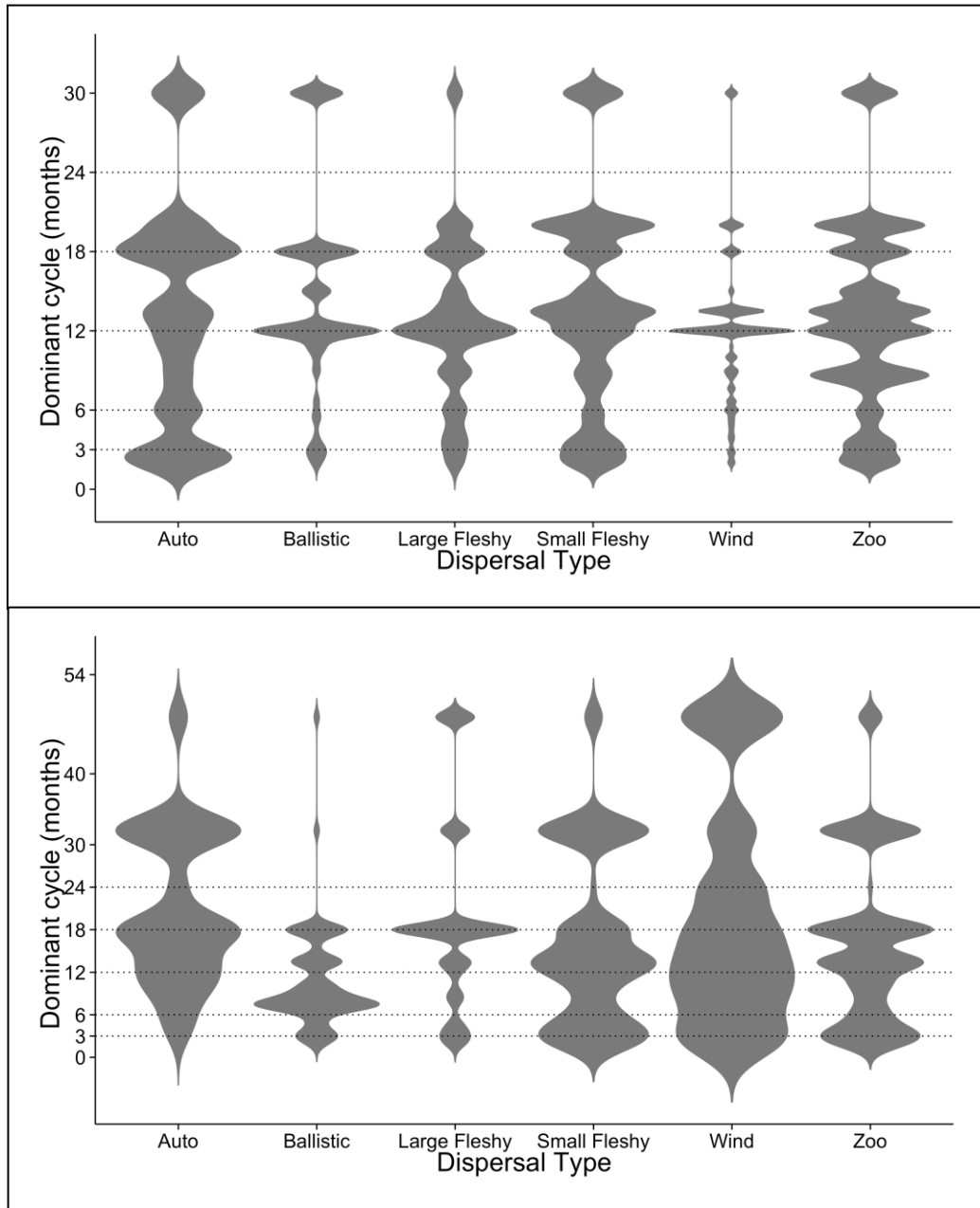
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701 FIGURE 2.

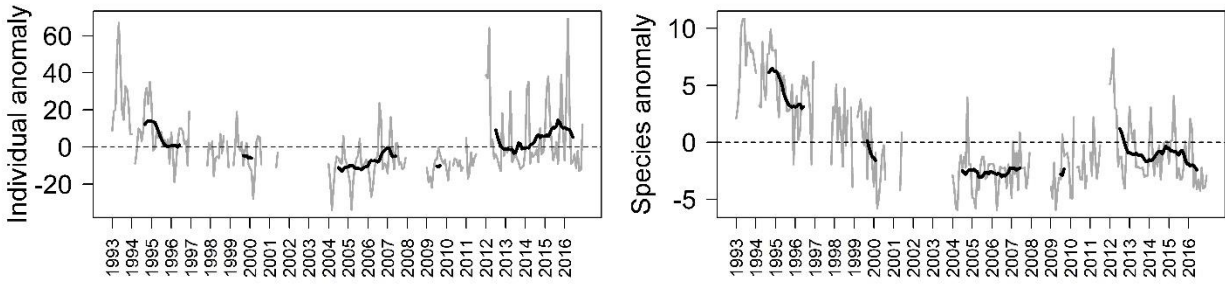
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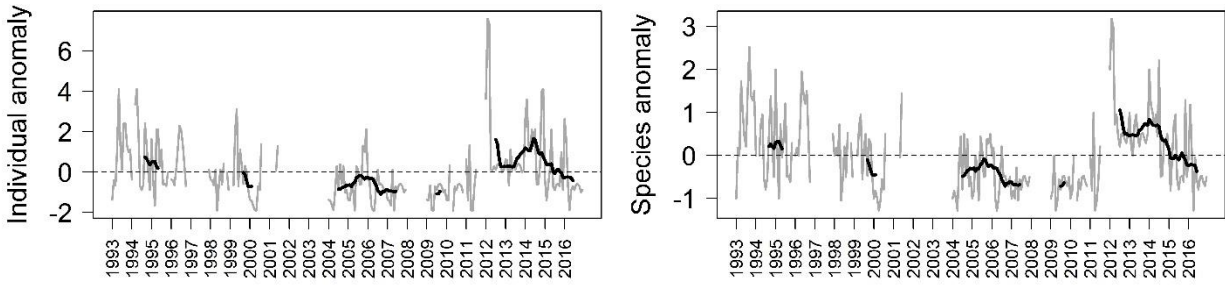


704 FIGURE 3.

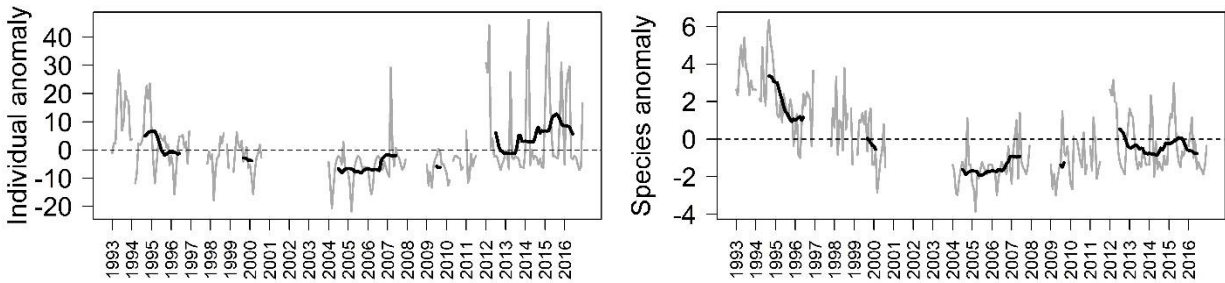
705 a. All trees



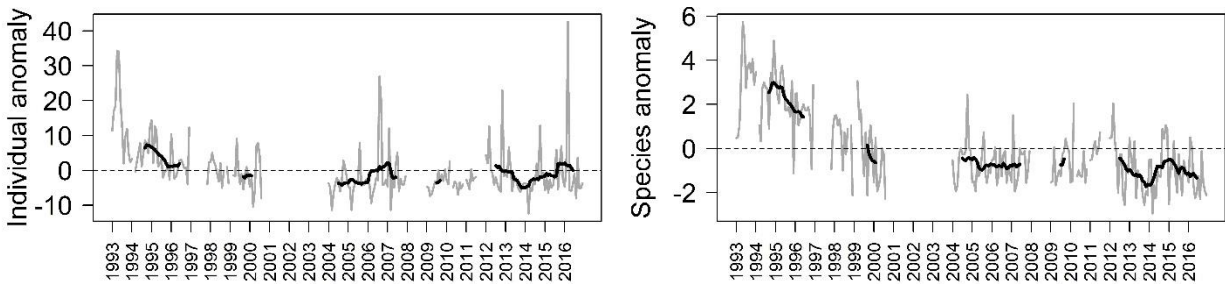
708 b. Pioneer trees



710 c. Non-pioneer Light Demander

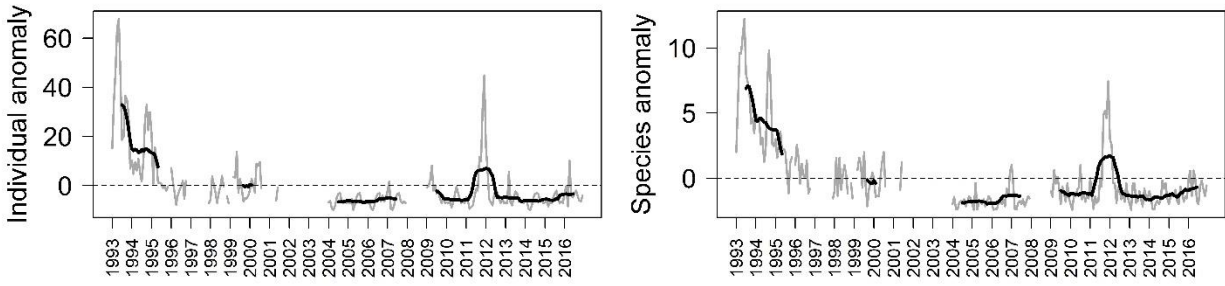


712 d. Shade-bearer



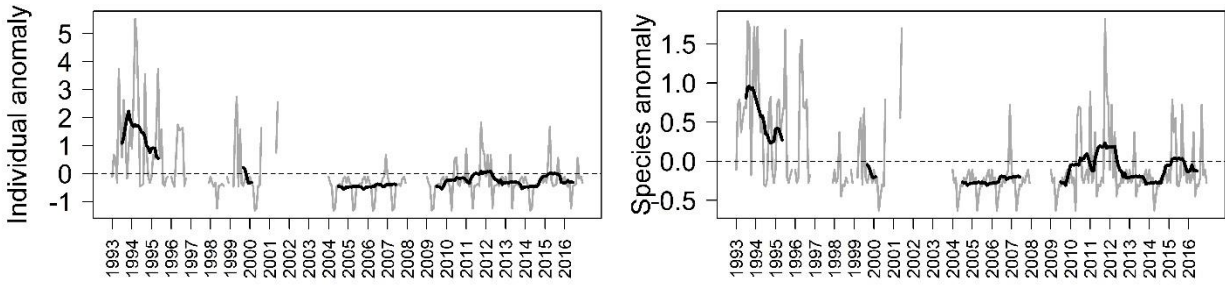
714 FIGURE 4.

715 a. All trees



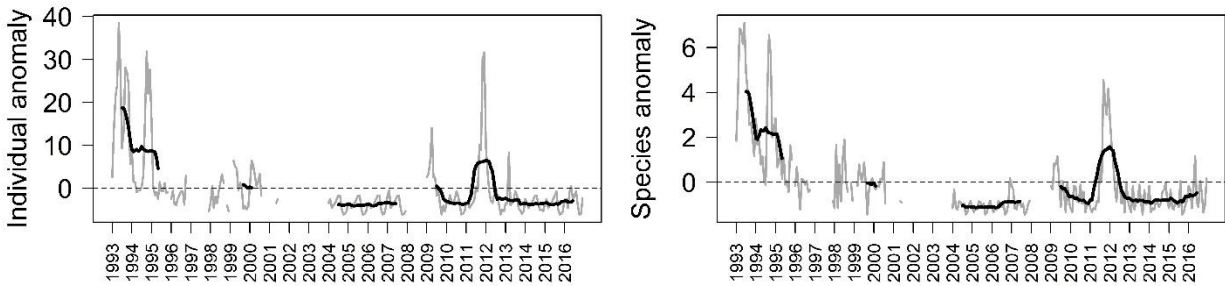
716 b. Pioneer trees

717



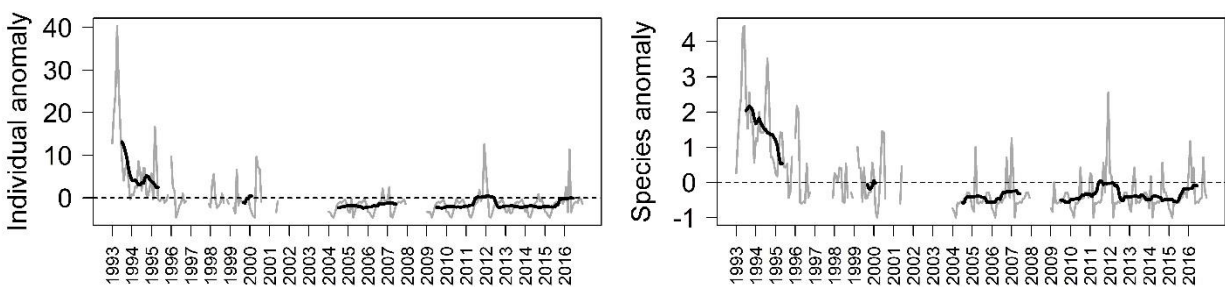
718 c. Non-pioneer Light Demander

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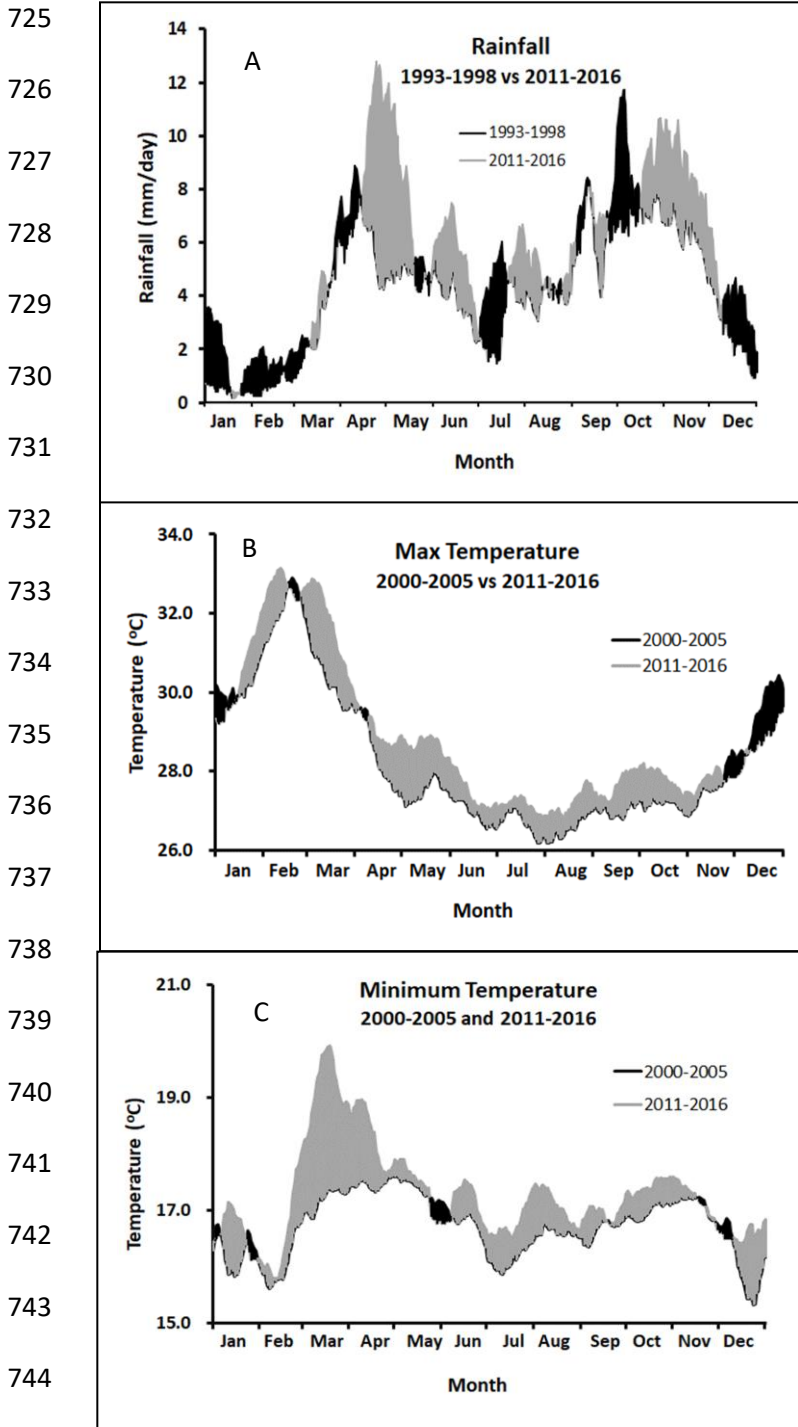


720 d. Shade-bearer

721



724 FIGURE 5.



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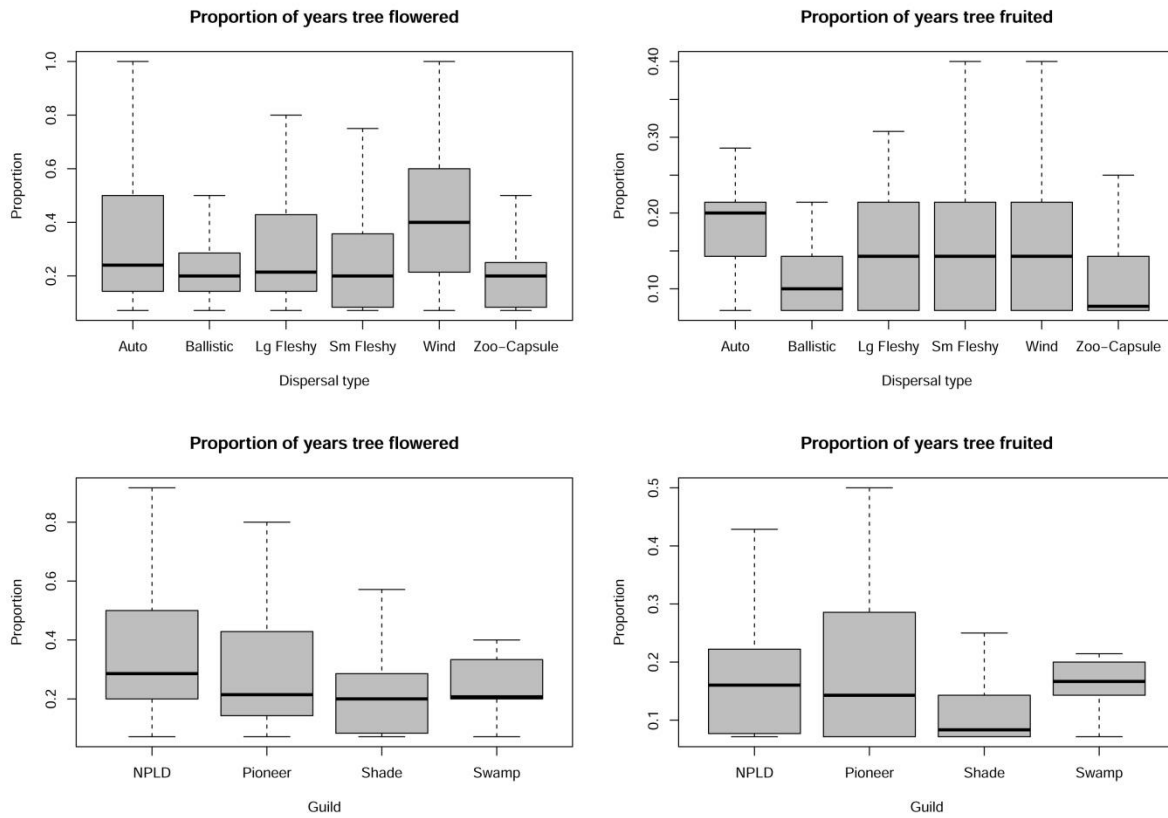
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747 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

748

749 **FIGURE S1.**

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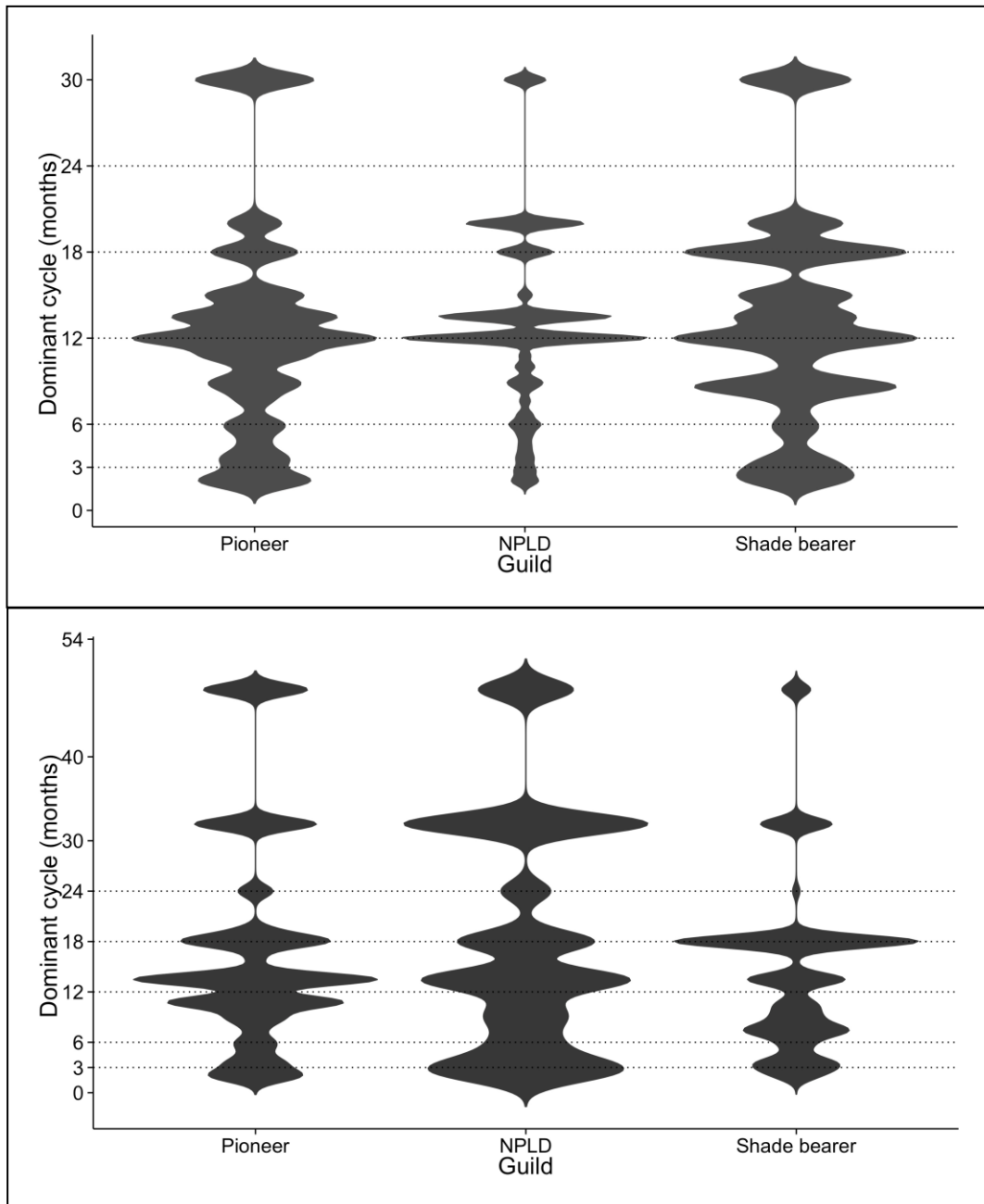
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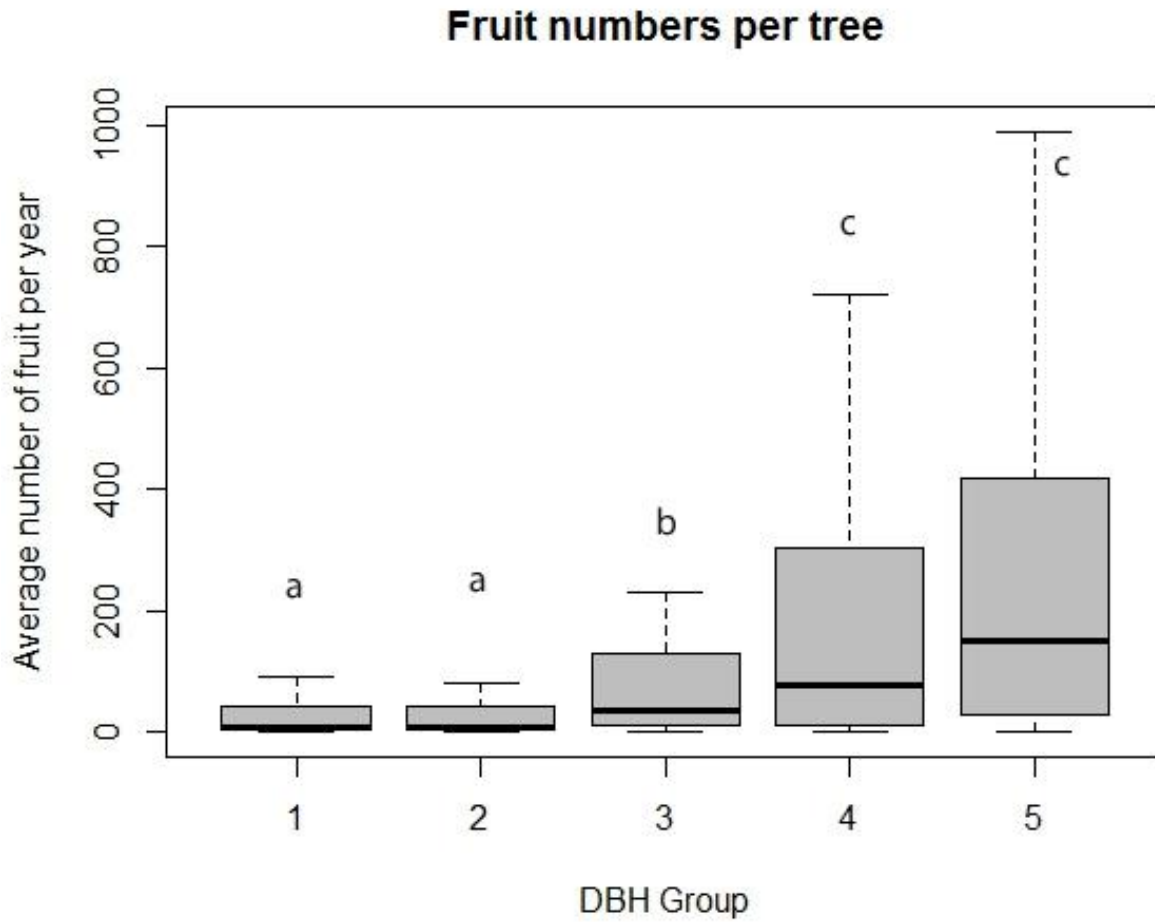
753 FIGURE S2. Violin plots of the density of flowering (top) and fruiting (bottom) frequency of all  
754 individual trees in each guild type.

755

756



757 Figure S3. Boxplot of the average number of ripe fruit produced by a fruiting tree plotted by  
758 DBH group for all trees that fruited at least once. A quasi-poisson GLM indicated where  
759 significant differences occurred between tree size groups and these are flagged with different  
760 letters.  
761



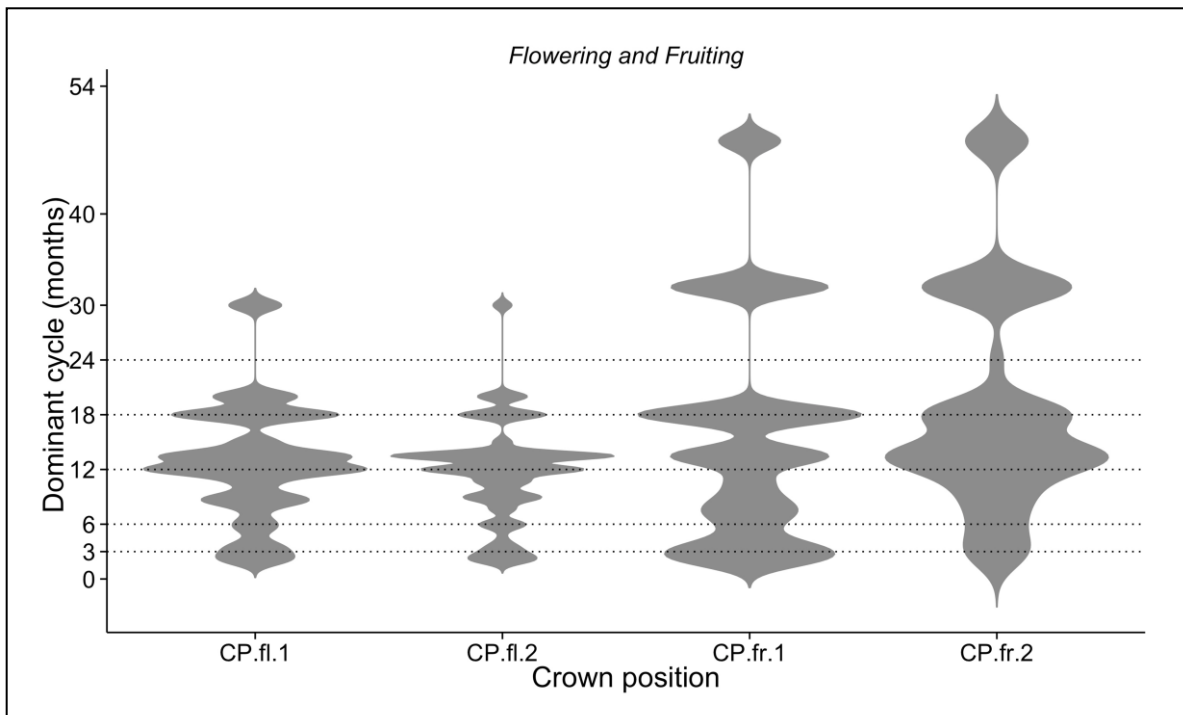
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779 FIGURE S4 Violin plots of the density of flowering (left pair) and fruiting (right pair) frequency  
780 of all individual trees in CP.GROUP type (1 = trees below the canopy; 2 = trees at or above the  
781 canopy).

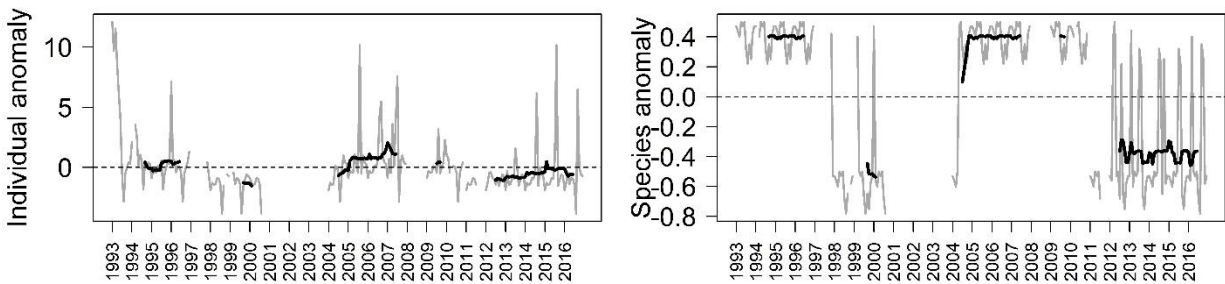
782



783 Figure S5 Anomaly scores comparing the monthly number of individuals (left) and species  
 784 (right) flowering with the average monthly number across the 24 years (dotted horizontal line). A  
 785 13-month running mean (black line) is plotted for the average value of the six months prior to  
 786 and after each specific month.

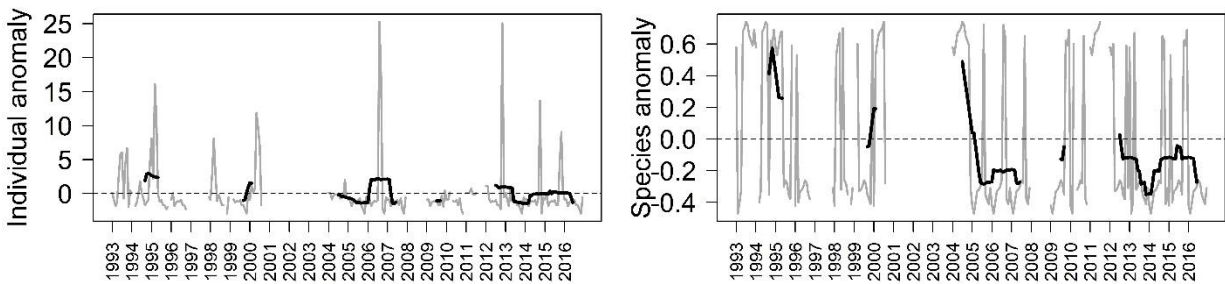
787  
 788

a. Auto dispersal trees



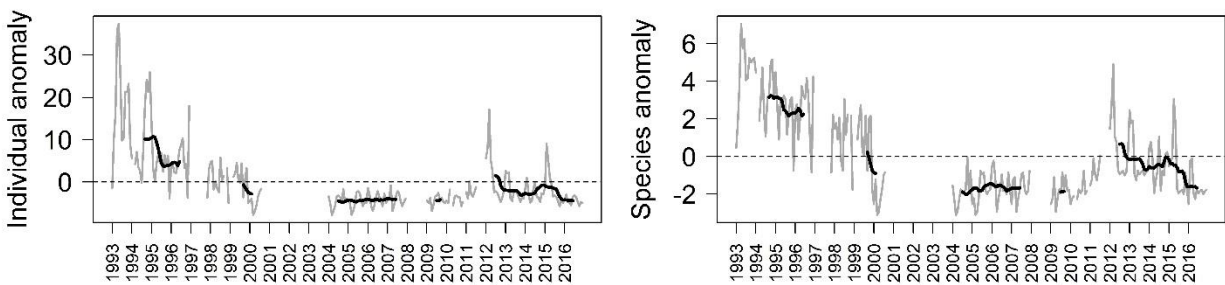
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 790

b. Ballistic dispersal



791

792 c. Small fleshy fruits



793

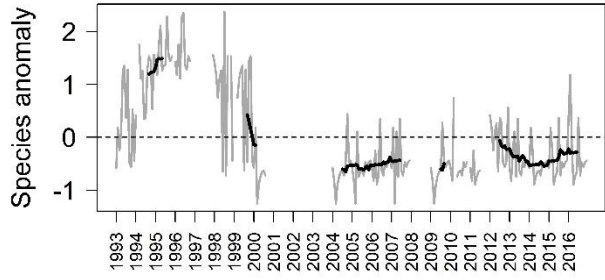
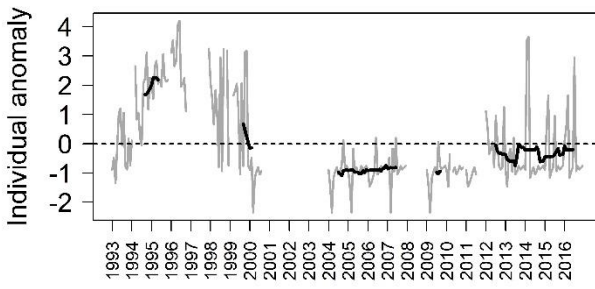
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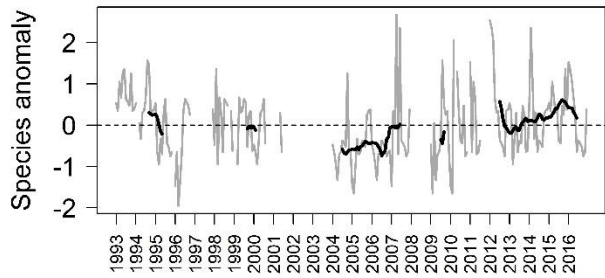
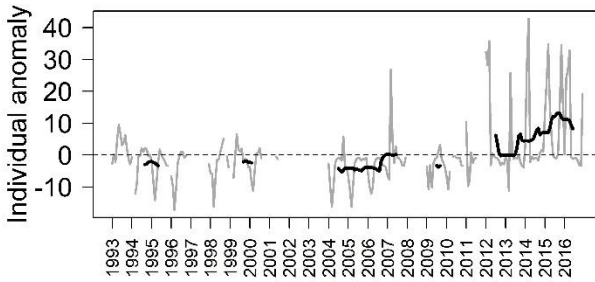
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798 d. Large fleshy fruits



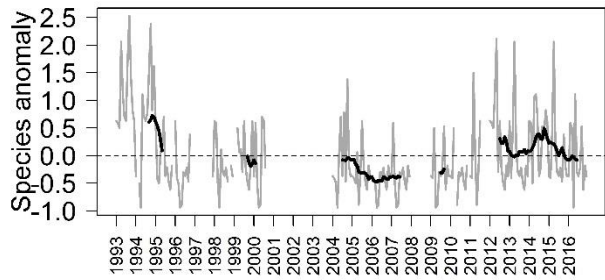
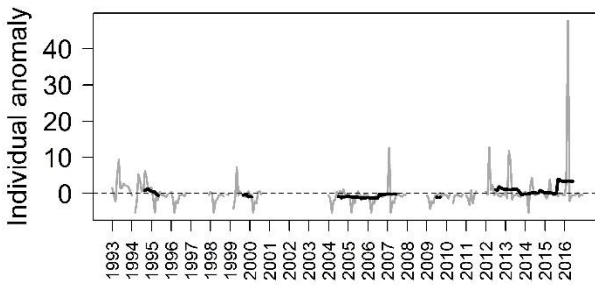
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e. Wind dispersal



801  
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f. Capsules dispersed by birds

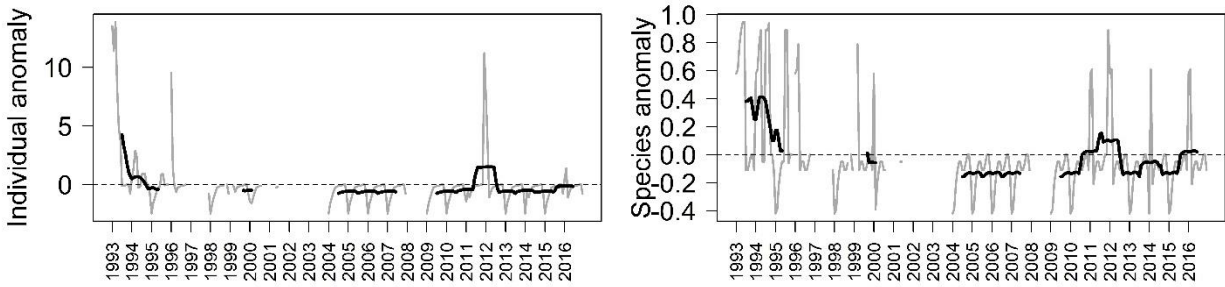


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806 Figure S6 Anomaly scores comparing the monthly number of individuals (left) and species  
807 (right) with ripe fruit with the average monthly number across the 24 years (dotted horizontal  
808 line). A 13-month running mean (black line) is plotted for the average value of the six months  
809 prior to and after each specific month.

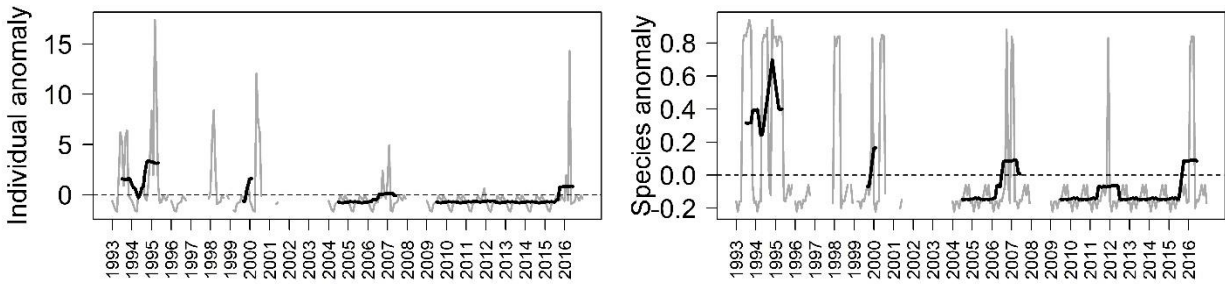
810  
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a. Auto dispersal trees



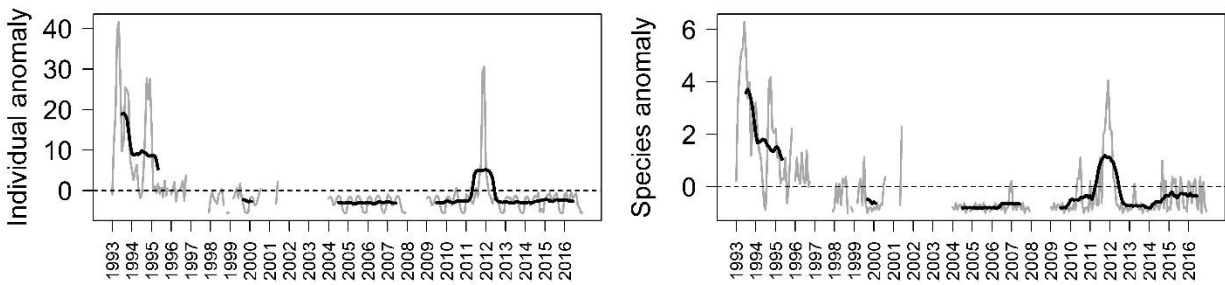
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b. Ballistic dispersal



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815 c. Small fleshy fruits



816

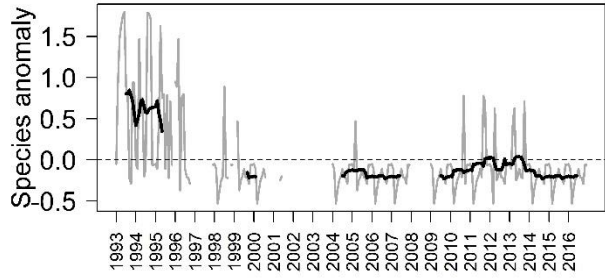
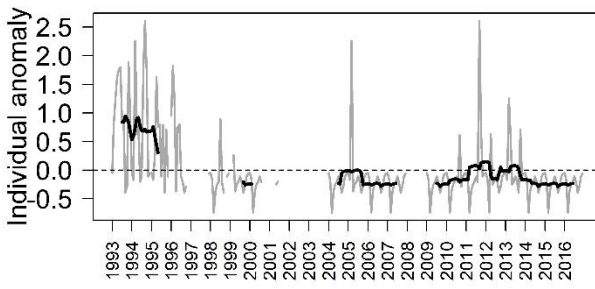
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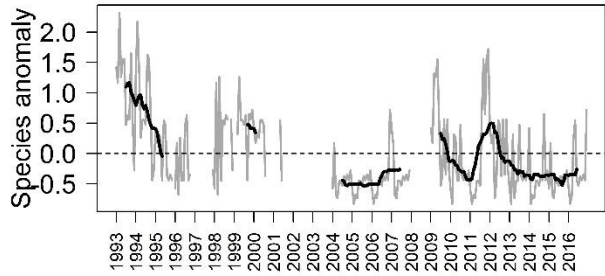
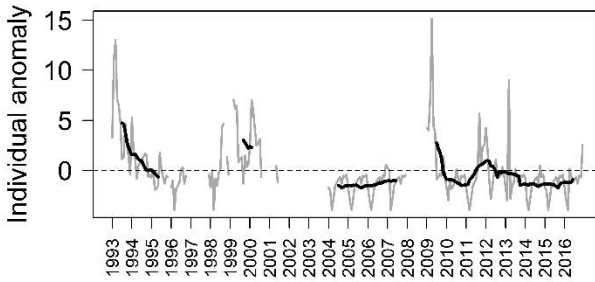
820

821 d. Large fleshy fruits



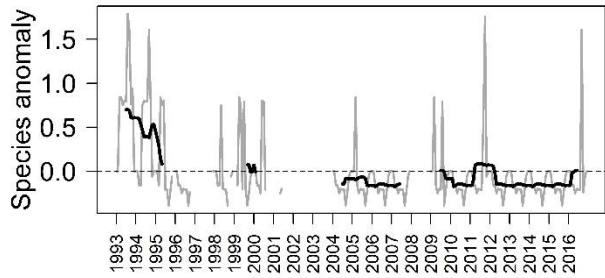
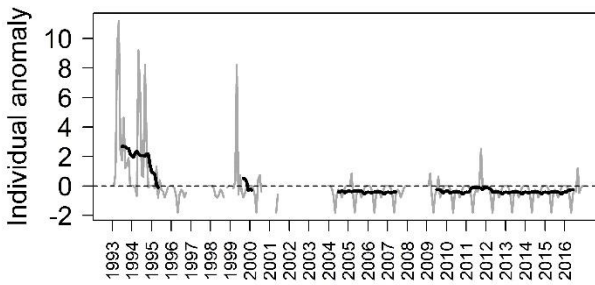
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823 e. Wind dispersal



824

825 f. Capsules dispersed by birds



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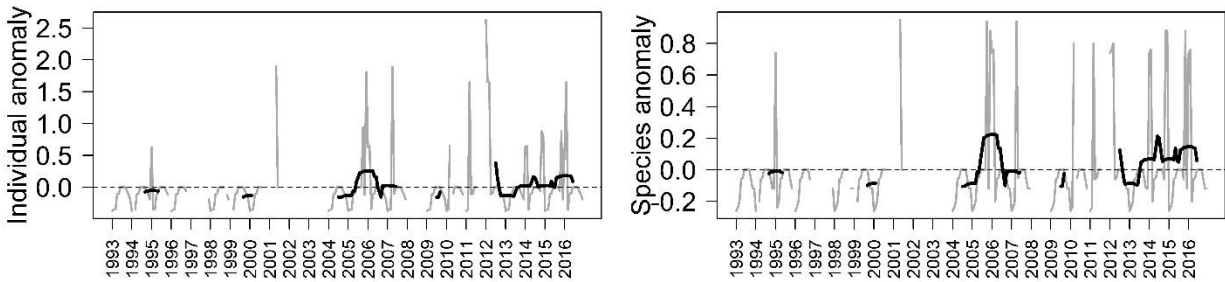
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828

829 FIGURE S7. Anomaly scores from trees with DBH score 4 or 5 (largest trees), comparing the  
 830 monthly number of individuals (left) and species (right) with flowers with the average monthly  
 831 number across the 24 years (dotted horizontal line). A 13-month running mean (black line) is  
 832 plotted for the average value of the six months prior to and after each specific month.

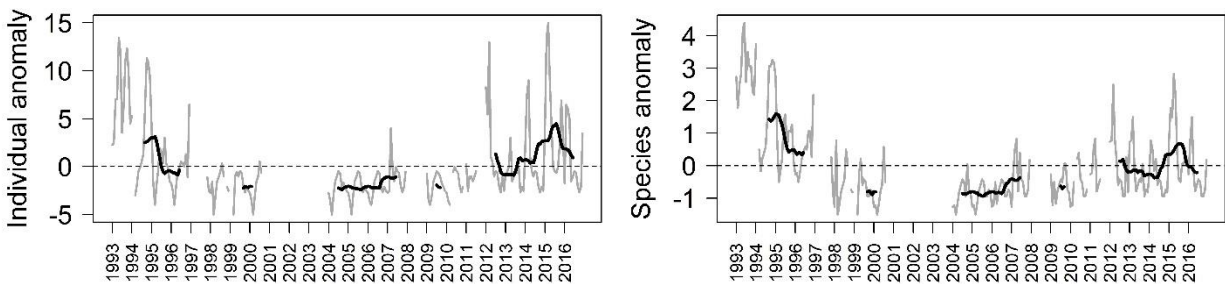
833  
 834

a. Pioneer trees



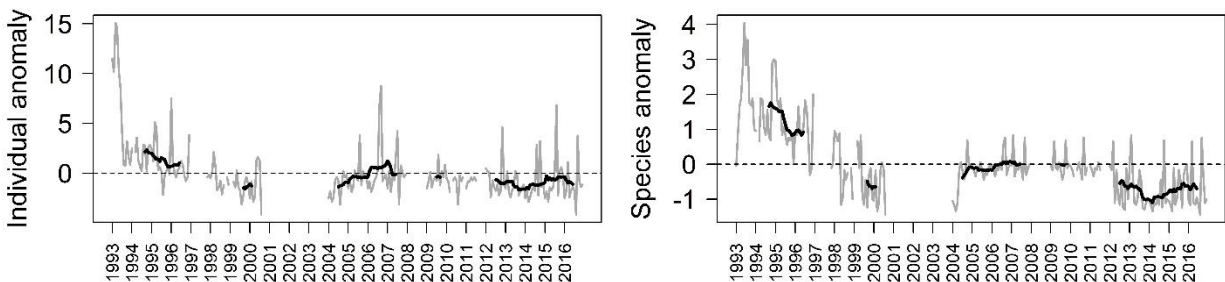
835

836 b. Non-pioneer Light Demander



837

838 c. Shade-bearer



839

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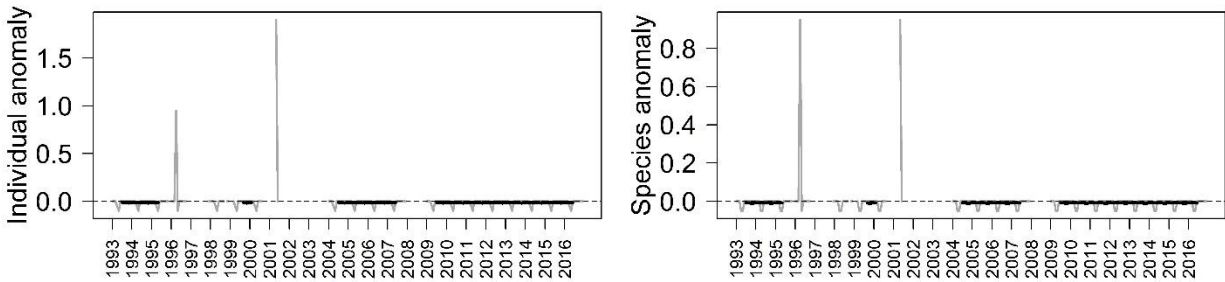
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843

844 FIGURE S8. Anomaly scores from trees with DBH score 4 or 5 (largest trees), comparing the  
 845 monthly number of individuals (left) and species (right) with ripe fruit with the average monthly  
 846 number across the 24 years (dotted horizontal line). A 13-month running mean (black line) is  
 847 plotted for the average value of the six months prior to and after each specific month.

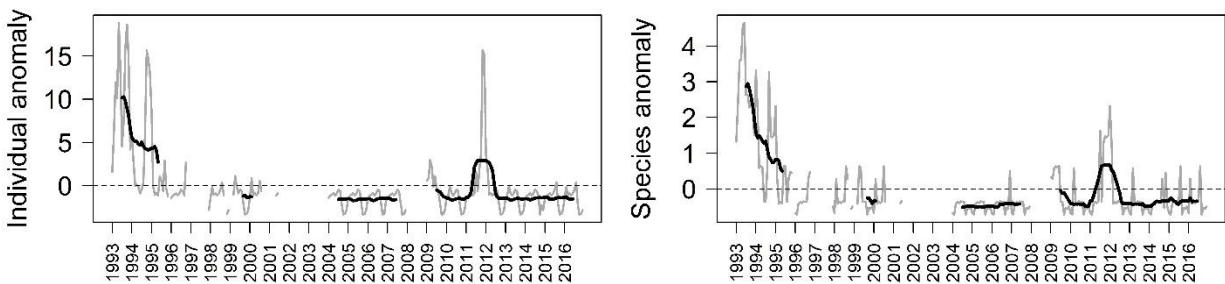
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a. Pioneer trees



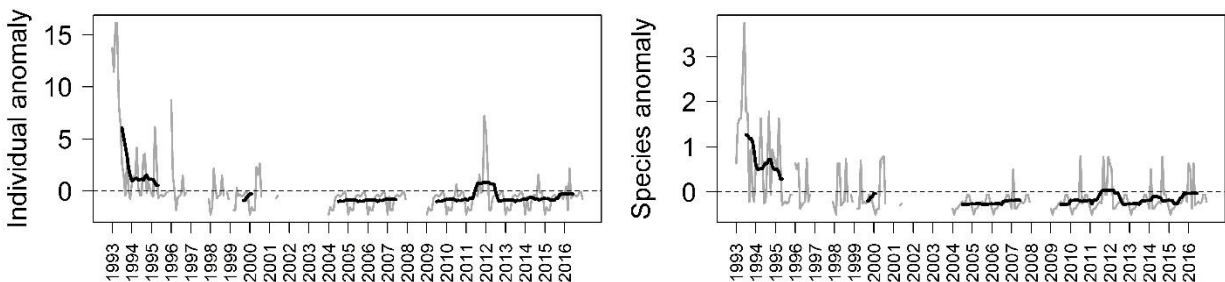
850

851 b. Non-pioneer Light Demander



852

853 c. Shade-bearer



854