Research article

Growth Performance of Planted Indigenous Trees 12 years from Establishment

RUMILA C. BULLECER*

Bohol Island State University, Bohol, Philippines Email : mslling@yahoo.com

LORETO SOCORIN

Bohol Island State University, Bohol, Philippines

Received 20 December 2012 Accepted 30 January 2013 (*Corresponding Author)

Abstract This tree domestication research is an *ex-situ* conservation effort aimed to find out the growth performance of some indigenous timber species planted outside their natural forest habitat in Bohol Island, Central Philippines. Specifically, the study sought to characterize the growing conditions of the sites and the biometrics of the trees in three sites after 12 years of growth. We also wanted to find out the best "performers" when grown outside the natural forest habitat. Only indigenous trees were used and planted in a mixed manner. Most of the planting materials were selected wildlings from the local forests. A few were brought in from the nearby island of Leyte. Standard biometrics of trees were taken of all trees. A total of 1,040 trees belonging to 49 species and 25 plant families in 3 land parcels were inventoried. The three sites totaled 2.5 hectares located within the same village and similar growing conditions. These were typical degraded karst areas: shallow soils with pebbles and rock outcrops dotting the landscape. Scrubby vegetation and few scattered trees were the precursor vegetation. The sites used to be cogonal for a long time before scrubby vegetation set in. Annual rainfall is about 2,000 mm; flat to rolling topography; elevation of 320 meters above sea level. Daytime temperature ranges from 24-28 degrees Celsius most of the year and 28-33 degrees during summer (March-May). The standout performers were Terminalia microcarpa, Shorea contorta, Vatica mangachapui, Shorea palosapis, Parashorea malaanonan, and Dracontomelon dao. The biggest Terminalia microcarpa area measured 48 cm in diameter at breast height (dbh). Shorea contorta had a dbh of 29 cm and had a total height of 29 meters. Shorea assamica did not do well in the sites, and was stricken by dieback of unknown cause. *Quisumbing guisok* was noted to be very sensitive to moisture stress from seedling to the sapling stage. At 12 years, many forest-based timbers including dipterocarps responded well to domestication or ex-situ conservation even in a degraded karst land in tropical Philippines.

Keywords domestication, indigenous, karst, ex-situ conservation, rainforestation

INTRODUCTION

The Philippines needs an ideal 54% of forest cover to maintain its natural ecological processes. (Sajise, 1996). Disastrous logging and changing land uses have reduced the original amount of 17 million ha of forested area in the Philippines to 5.5 million ha (18% of total land area) during the last 40 years. This has also earned notoriety in Southeast Asia as the country with the thinnest forest cover (Ong, 2004). Less than 6% of the originally 60% of the total forested land area have remained as prime habitats for wildlife and genetic conservation. Bohol in particular had a remaining natural forest of only 4% from its original full forested area. The island is blessed, among many other indigenous timbers, some 16 endemic dipterocarp species (Fernando et al, 2008).

Among the governing state policies of the Philippines is "to protect and advance the right of

the people to a balanced and healthful ecology" (1987 Philippine Constitution). The latest policy support at the national level was the issuance of E.O. No. 26 in February of 2011 which launched a new National Greening Program for the planting of 1.5 billion trees covering about 1.5 million hectares for a period of six (6) years from 2011 to 2016 in lands of the public domain. The National Integrated Protected Areas System (NIPAS) Law or Republic Act 7586 mandates that only indigenous species should be used in the rehabilitation of Philippine watersheds. The maintenance of sufficient forest cover in Bohol Island is not only ecologically and economically of the utmost importance but also to keep its banner, nature-based tourism industry alive and productive. For local policy support, Section 10 of the Revised 2011 Bohol Environmental Code calls for Boholanos to be self-sufficient in wood needs through *tree farming* for domestic wood needs, thus reducing the dependence on commercial fuel as well as to conserve the naturally growing trees.

In support of the national and local policies, and as the leading higher educational institution (HEI) on natural resources management (NRM) in Bohol, Bohol Island State University has long since taken significant steps to increase its role in biodiversity conservation and poverty reduction in the island -province through *in-situ* and *ex-situ* conservation. One of these is the domestication of forest-based valuable timber species in three sites with a total area of 2.5 hectares which were established in 1997- 1998 within the land of the University. These were planted with more than 40 tree species taken from the island's remnant forests. Raising these trees in farms or in homesteads would ease up the pressure of extraction from their present natural forest habitat and could also save them from eventual local extinction (Bullecer and Stark, 2002). Part of the domestication program is to come up with species-site compatibility recommendations for possible wider community adoption.

OBJECTIVE

The main aim of the study was to find out the domestication potential after more than a decade of growth of some forest-based tree species in Bohol Island, Philippines. Specifically, it sought to characterize the growing conditions of the domestication sites, the biometrics of the trees and identify the best performers after over decade of growth.

METHODOLOGY

The study sites are located the interior portion of the island- province of Bohol in the central part of the Philippine archipelago.

Site selection: The domestication sites were in 3 parcels of land, totaling 2.5 hectares, within the same village and with similar growing conditions. Climatic and elevation data were taken from existing secondary data. Edaphic and landscape characteristics were determined by field observation.

Planting stock sources and farm establishment: Wildlings of indigenous trees from nearby forests were collected and nurtured until they were big enough for field planting. Other seedlings were obtained from nearby Leyte Island. Adopting the rainforestation technology, the seedlings were planted in mixed manner, 1.5 to 2.0 meters apart.

Data collection and analysis: A 100% inventory was conducted. Total and merchantable heights were taken with the use of the Abney hand level and fiber glass tape. Diameter at breast height (dbh) was taken using diameter tape and crown diameter with the fiber glass tape.

Total height was determined by the following formula:

$$H = tan^{0}(D) + eye \ level \ height \tag{1}$$

where *H* is the height in meters; tan^0 = the angle reading from the eye level mark the stem to the tip of the tree; *D* = distance from the base of the tree to the spot where the researcher stood.

The merchantable height was measured from the base of the tree up to the portion just before the heavy branching started. It was obtained using the following formula:

$H=tan^{0}=(d) + eye \ level \ height$

(2)

where tan^0 = the angle reading from the eye level mark to the merchantable top; d = distance from the base of the tree to the spot where the researcher stands.

The diameter at breast height was measured at the standard point of 1.3 meters from the ground or base. Crown cover or crown area was obtained by getting the average crown diameter of each tree and calculate the radius there from. Individual crown cover was computed using the following formula:

$$A = \prod r^2 \tag{3}$$

where, A: crown area, \prod is the pi (3.1416) and r = radius

Merchantable volume was obtained by making use of the dbh and merchantable height values. Qualitative description of biometric data was employed in determining the growth performance. No other statistical analysis was made. Periodical field observations were made on species reactions during summer or dry conditions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Biophysical conditions of the tree domestication sites

The domestication sites, with a total land area of 2.5 hectares, were typical degraded karst areas as evidenced by shallow soils and rock outcrops. Soil depth was less than 10 cm in most (about 90%) areas. After a decade some ground litter began to occupy the ground. The prior vegetation consisted of scrubby plants, viny thickets and a few scattered mahogany trees at the pole and young timber stage. The soil texture is silty-clayloam in all three sites. The limestone soils were generally shallow (less than 10 cm) and slightly alkaline. Annual rainfall is about 2,000 mm; flat to rolling topography; elevation of 320 meters above sea level. Daytime temperature ranges from 24-28 degrees Celsius most time of the year and 28-33 degrees during summer (March to mid-May).

Species composition and family distribution of the tree domestication farms

Table 1 lists the species at the research sites. A total of 49 species belonging to 25 plant families were planted in the three land parcels. Dipterocarpaceae was the most represented family with 7 species, followed by Fabaceae, 5 species and Moraceae, 4 species. Most (37%) families had only one species representative. Two of the species, *Vitex parviflora* and *Artocarpus heterophyllus* are already known to be thriving in open areas or outside natural forest stands.

Overall biometrics of the domesticated indigenous trees

Table 2 shows the overall list of the domesticated species with their corresponding biometrics. A total of 1,040 individuals belonging to 49 species representing 25 families were inventoried in the three domestication areas. The domesticated trees have the following biometrics: The trees had a mean dbh of 10.8 cm; mean total height of 9.0 m; mean merchantable height of 5.4 m; total merchantable volume of 47.9 cu m; mean crown diameter of 4.5 m and a total crown area of 11,608.8 sq m or 1.2 hectares. *Terminalia microcarpa* and *Shorea contorta* were among the top performers in diameter and total height growth. The biggest *Terminalia microcarpa* measured 48 cm in dbh while the biggest *Shorea contorta* had a dbh of 29 cm and had an impressive total height of 29 meters. Some 604 dipterocarps consisting of 8 species dominated (58%) the domestication farms. *Myristica philippinenses* came second with 50 individuals. The stand of trees in each domestication land parcel had provided a good ground cover through its close canopies.

Species	Family	Species	Family	
1. Albizia procera	Fabaceae	26.Horsfieldia megacarpa	Myristicaceae	
2. Antidesma subolivaceum	Euphorbiaceae	27.Intsia bijuga	Fabaceae	
3. Artocarpus blancoi	Moraceae	28.Madhuca Betis	Sapotaceae	
4. Artocarpus heterophyllus	Moraceae	29.Mangifera altissima	Anacardiaceae	
5. Artocarpus nitidus	Moraceae	30.Myristica philippinensis	Myristicaceae	
6. Artocarpus sericicarpus	Moraceae	31.Ormosia calovensis	Fabaceae	
7. Barringtonia racemosa	Lecythidaceae	32. Parashorea malaanonan	Dipterocarpaceae	
8. Bischofia javanica	Fabaceae	33. Planchonella duclitan	Sapotaceae	
9. Callophylum blancoi	Clusiaceae	34. Podocarpus rumphii	Podocarpaceae	
10. Callophylum inophyllum	Clusiaceae	35.Pometia pinnata forma repanda	Sapindaceae	
11. Cananga odorata	Anonaceae	36. Pouteria macrantha	Sapotaceae	
12. Canarium luzonicum	Burseraceae	37. Pterocarpus indicus	Fabaceae	
13. Casuarina nodiflora	Casuarinaceae	38. Pterocymbium tinctorium	Malvaceae	
14.Cinnamomum microphyllum	Lauraceae	39. Pterospermum celebicum	Sterculiaceae	
15. Cynometra ramiflora	Caesalpiniaceae	40. P. diversifolium	Sterculiaceae	
16. Diospyros copelandii	Ebenaceae	41. Pygeum coccineum	Pittosporaceae	
17. Diospyros copelandii	Ebenaceae	42. Shorea assamica	Dipterocarpaceae	
18.Discocalyx cymbianthoides	Myrsinaceae	43. Shorea contorta	Dipterocarpaceae	
19, Dracontomelon dao	Anacardiaceae	44. Shorea palosapis	Dipterocarpaceae	
20. Dracontomelon edule	Anacardiaceae	45. Strombosia philippinensis	Olacaceae	
21. Elaeocarpus macranthus	Elaeocarpaceae	46. Syzygium brevistylum	Myrtaceae	
22. Gomphandra luzoniensis	Icacinaceae	47. Terminalia microcarpa	Combretaceae	
23. Guioa koelreuteria	Sapindaceae	48. Vatica mangachapui	Dipterocarpaceae	
24. Hopea philippinensis	Dipterocarpaceae	49. Vitex parviflora	Lamiaceae	
25. Hopea quisumbingiana	Dipterocarpaceae	* v		

Table 1 Species composition of the *Treedom* or *Rainforestation* ex-situ conservation sites in Bilar, Bohol, Philippines which were established in 1998-1999

A decade of difference and initial impacts

Aside from garnering data and some learning in tree domestication and species potentials for watershed rehabilitation, the Tree Dom farms had gradually transformed what used to be a degraded landscape to a wooded land as shown in Fig. 1. In 2004, the provincial Research Consortium, where BISU is a member, put up the Bohol Biodiversity Complex (BBC) adjacent to one of the tree farms for a learning continuum in nurserying and tree farming. The Consortium and the Complex do biodiversity research, trainings and indigenous tree seedlings production. In the last 5 years, the Tree Dom farms have been part of the regular alternative ecotourism route in the island. The tree farms have become a learning area for students, farmers, policy makers, researchers and other environment advocates from the local, national and international community.

Standouts in domestication and species enrichment

Based on growth performance and general vigor, some of the tested species for domestication have stood out as having domestication potentials. These were *Terminalia microcarpa*, *Shorea contorta*, *Vatica mangachapui*, *Shorea palosapis*, *Parashorea malaanonan*, *Dracontomelon dao*, *Syzygium brevistylum*, *Vitex parviflora*, *Gomphandra luzoniensis*, *Cinnamomum microphyllum*, *Callophylum blancoi* and *Elaeocarpus macranthus*. Except for *Shorea assamica*, the rest of the plants are exhibiting acceptable survival and growth rates. The problem with *Shorea assamica* seems to be related to fungal infection causing dieback. *Hopea quisumbingiana* at the seedling and pole stage seemed very sensitive to moisture stress. In the last three years, Rainforestation Sites 2 and 3 had been enriched with the planting of more dipterocarps and other trees which are endemic to Bohol island. These are *Shorea palosapis*, *Hopea acuminata*, *Dipterocarpus kerril*, *Shorea malibato*,

Shorea falciferoides and *Vatica mangachapui*. They were not included in this inventory, yet at this early stage, the new additions have manifested promising growth performance.

Table 2 Biometric summary of	f the planted indigenous	timber species at 12 years of age
------------------------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------------

Species	N	Mean DBH(cm)	Mean Total Height(m)	Mean Merchantable Height (m)	Total Mer. Volume(m)	Mean Crown Diameter (m)	Total Crown Area (sq. m)
Albizzia procera (topped off)							
Antidesma subolivaceum	1	9.5	4.0	4.4		3.9	12.2
Artocarpus blancoi	14	11.0	8.6	6.8	1.8	3.8	247.8
Artocarpus heterophyllus	7	9.5	8.4	5.2	0.1	3.8	75.6
Artocarpus nitidus	12	14.7	9.6	4.7	0.8	5.8	272.8
Artocarpus sericarpus	4	11.8	10.3	3.6	0.1	5.5	94.7
Barringtonia racemosa	23	10.3	9.8	5.7	1.0	4.2	71.2
Bischofia javanica	23	11.0	7.1	4.0	3.0	4.0	397.7
C. inophyllum	9	16.0	12.0	4.8	0.9	5.5	353.2
Callophylum blancoi	27	9.0	7.0	3.7		3.8	343.6
Cananga odorata	3	18.0	14.6	8.3	0.6	4.6	60.6
Canarium luzonicum	16	19.2	13.4	6.8	0.7	6.0	407.9
Casuarinas nodiflora	3	14.3	12.9	6.0	0.2	7.3	57.0
Cinnamomum microphyllum	3	14.4	6.3	2.8	0.01	2.6	15.2
Cynometra ramiflora	1	5.1	5.4	5.4		3.4	9.1
Diospyrus copelandii	5	9.7	9.9	4.6		3.8	44.3
Discocalyx cymbianthoides	2	7.8	5.0	2.8		3.6	20.4
Dracontomelon dao	33	15.3	11.0	6.6	4.4	5.3	465.2
Dracontomelon edule	1	8.5	14.3	11.4		5.8	26.2
Elaeocarpus macranthus	8	13.5	10.7	6.5	1.8	5.1	231.3
Gomphandra luzoniensis	31	10.2	5.3	5.7	0.1	5.1	633.3
Hopea philippinensis	148	7.1	7.1	4.5	0.1	3.8	284.7
Hopea quisumbingiana	152	6.2	6.6	4.1		3.0	89.7
Horsfieldia megacarpa	4	16.7	10.4	4.3	0.3	7.0	157.5
Instia bijuga	5	17.2	11.8	6.8	0.8	10.0	206.2
Kamagong-like	1	5.4	5.5	3.9	0.0	3.4	9.3
Litsea glutinosa	1	10.5	9.4	4.8		4.7	17.1
Madhuca betis	1	13.4	5.2	9.3		5.6	24.6
Mangifera altissima	5	9.0	8.2	4.6		4.0	68.3
Myristica philippinensis	50	9.0 8.5	7.2	4.0	2.7	4.0	1,836.1
Ormosia calovensis	1		9	4.2 5.9	2.1	4. <i>3</i> 3.4	8.6
P. celebicum		10.5			0.7		277.8
	14	10.3	11.6	7.7	0.7	4.7	22.5
Parashorea malaanonan	73	7.8	8.6	4.0		4.3	624.1
Planchonella duclitan	3	8.9	9.1	6.7		2.5	19.1
Podocarpus rumphii	3	5.6	5.5	2.3	0.6	2.8	184.3
Pometia pinnata	7	13.0	13.1	8.6	0.6	5.2	6.7
Pouteria macrantha	1	5.7	9.2	4.8		2.9	171.8
Pterocarpus indicus	7	10.2	9.5	5.1	0.2	6.2	241.9
Pterocymbium tinctorium	11	10.3	9.0	5.4	0.7	4.3	468.1
Pterospermum diversifolium	13	15.5	15.1	6.7	2.9	6.0	38.7
Shorea assamica	2	6	3.2	5.3		3.1	
Shorea contorta	68	14.6	12.1	8.6	4.4	3.8	216.3
Shorea palosapis	100	6.9	6.1	4.3		3.0	94.2
Shorea polysperma	16	5.4	5.3				2.6
Strombosia philippinensis	1	4.1	4.3	2.0		1.8	8.8
Syzygium brevistylum	3	9.0	11	6.9		4.6	22.0
Terminalia microcarpa	34	21.7	16.3	8.1	16.8	7.7	1,093.6
Vatica mangachapui	45	7.1	7.4	4.9		3.2	288.8
Vitex parviflora	45	13.3	9.0	4.2	2.3	5.7	1,286.1
Total / Mean	1,040	10.8	9.0	5.4	47.9	4.5	11,608.8



Fig. 1 A changed landscape from being a scrubland in 1998 to woodland after a decade

CONCLUSION

Many indigenous forest timbers can be successfully conserved through domestication even in degraded karstic upland environment of Bohol, Central Philippines. Except for two species, the rest of the 49 domesticated indigenous timbers studied have adapted very well after 12 years to growing conditions outside the forest habitat. Some species like *Shorea contorta* and *Terminalia microcarpa* manifest outstanding growth performance than others. Domestication of selected tree species is imperative especially in regions where communities are heavily dependent on the natural resource for daily survival.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

1. ViSCA (now Visayas State University) Institute of Tropical Ecology / GTZ - for the rainforestation Technology (1996) and for the initial fund assistance in 1998

2. Bohol Island State University - for the support in sustaining the Project

3. Bohol Provincial Government - for the establishment of the Bohol Biodiversity Complex

4. The Bohol Biodiversity Conservation Consortium - for the collaborations in advocacy, training research especially with these Consortium members: Bohol Environmental Management Office (BEMO) and the Soil and Water Conservation Foundation (SWCF)

5. The Environmental Leadership and Training Initiative [ELTI] - Yale School of Forestry and Environmental Studies & Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute for the technical and leadership trainings in Rainforestation

REFERENCES

- Bullecer, R.C. and Stark, M. 2002. Local knowledge on indigenous trees in the Central Philippines". A study conducted under the ICRAF Tree Domestication Program. Summary submitted to ICRAF Southeast Asia Regional Office, Bogor, Indonesia. 12-14.
- Fernando, E.S., Bande, M.J.M., Piollo, R.A., Sopot, D.D., Dolotina, N.E. and Granert, W.G. 2008. Dipterocarpaceae of Bohol Island, Philippines. Asia Life Sciences Suppl. 4.

Ong, P. 2010. State of Philippine biodiversity: Changing mindscapes amidst the crisis.

Sajise, P. 1996. Sustainable agriculture in the marginal uplands of Southeast Asia. Bohol Environmental Code (2011 edition) .Philippine Constitution. (1987. Article II, Sec. 16.RA 7586. The NIPAS Law of 1991).